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fession will remain the official and judicial standard. Yet it is apparent that it cannot long remain so, in practice, after the new creed gets into use. It is the latter which, in effect, and with the hearty assent of the great body of Presbyterian laymen, will come to be taken as the authorized expression of Presbyterian faith; and the Confession, having visibly waxed old as doth a garment, will more and more tend to vanish away.

Whatever the merits of the controversy between the New York Yacht Club and Mr. Lawson, every one is glad that the *Independence* is to meet the *Constitution* for the honor of defending the *America's* Cup. The public wants to see the best boat win, and most sportsmen will agree with the public that the battle of technicalities that has run on for some months has been a good deal of a bore. The profession of sea-lawyer is little in honor among yachtsmen, and it is hard to see how either Mr. Lawson or the Club is to be held wholly clear from that reproach. More unlucky than the controversy has been the publicity given to the incomplete negotiations. Much of the discussion has been absolutely unfair and damaging to the Club, while Mr. Lawson comes out of the whole affair rather more compromised by the friends, than loved for the enemies, he has made. The publication of the complete correspondence was most unfortunate for the owner of the *Independence*, and little advantageous to the Club. Suppose that everybody had kept quiet, and that Mr. Lawson's letter of Saturday, offering to put his boat in the hands of a member of the New York Yacht Club, had been the only document of record, it is easy to see how the press would have rung with Mr. Lawson's praises, and it is hard to imagine that the Club, through taking such a course, would have suffered in popular estimation. The least said is the soonest mended in these cases. If it has not been a very pretty quarrel, fortunately it has ended well. The Boston boat will be entered in the trial races, and we shall know that the Cup is defended by the better boat. That is the main thing, and, for the rest, sportsmen should be the readiest to let bygones be bygones.

Mr. Carnegie's donation of \$10,000,000 to the Scotch universities in a lump sum seems at first to have taken away the breath of the British public by its magnitude. Now that they have had time to think it over, the expression of opinion is conflicting, not as to the generosity of the donor, but as to the ultimate effects of the donation. Nobody has hitherto shown a keener perception than Mr. Carnegie of the maxims of political economy on the subject of pauperizing the poor with gifts. In this case the question is raised whether he is not in one

sense pauperizing the rich, seeing that he proposes to pay the tuition fees of all students in the universities of his native country, without reference to their own pecuniary resources. The grave question comes up, also, whether he is not doing harm to other institutions of learning which compete with the four universities in the work of educating the youth of Scotland, and which depend upon fees in whole or in part for their sustenance. Is it on the whole helpful to education to remove or weaken this element of competition? These and other questions are rife in the British press, and will probably be discussed at the approaching jubilee of Glasgow University and on other platforms. In a matter of such far-reaching importance, it may be assumed that no hasty conclusion will be accepted. The Scottish educators are among the first in the world. They will undoubtedly act in a way to promote both sound learning and self-help. That Mr. Carnegie will coöperate with them to the end of making his benefaction most useful to his fellow-countrymen may also be taken for granted.

While it is not likely that the Salisbury Government means to do anything serious for popular education, recent discussions in Parliament have brought out strikingly the backwardness, in this regard, of England, as compared with the rest of the civilized world. England releases the school-child earlier, and at best educates him fewer years, than any other nation of the first class. An English child may leave school at the age of twelve, and is no longer entitled to free education after the age of fifteen. In Germany, on an average for the different provinces, children must attend school till sixteen; in the United States, till fifteen. That is, the American or German child has an advantage over the English child of from two to three years of school. At the other end the disparity is even more striking. In Germany all children may claim the privilege of free education two years longer than in England; in the United States, five years longer. In France, as everybody knows, education is absolutely free from the primary school to the university. In 1868 Matthew Arnold ventured the prophecy that within a quarter of a century there would be a Minister of Education in England, and free secondary education. He was too hopeful. The problem remains about what it was in his time. England has rested content with partial measures for primary education, while other nations, and Scotland even, have steadily advanced towards a well-ordered educational system. There is a triumph in store for the Ministry which will do as much for England; but that Ministry is not Lord Salisbury's.

Germany adopts tardily the policy of withdrawal from Peking, and falls in

tacitly with what history will probably call the American leadership. German diplomacy was committed to the other policy. The contingent was to hold Peking with the other Powers until the court should return from the interior and negotiate with the conquerors face to face. This was to deal with the imperial yamen a little as if it were not only fugitive, but captured. There was talk of the pusillanimity of withdrawing, and the German attitude got some recognition as heroic. But as it became clearer that the Chinese court was better practised in the waiting game, the German attitude became uncomfortable and a little ridiculous. This they have had the grace to see. Meanwhile unnecessary delay has complicated the affair sadly. That this tardy action of Germany is the complete vindication of Secretary Hay's view of the case need hardly be pointed out. Where no trust is reposed there is no treason, says Dante. Secretary Hay early saw the disastrous results of withholding trust from the Chinese, which was not only good morals, but high diplomacy. The assumption of a peculiar kind of Oriental perfidy in the Chinese has proved to be the worst possible basis of negotiations. It is encouraging that Germany now chooses, even though reluctantly, the better part.

Admiral Cervera's fear lest the political agitation in Spain lead to a break-up of the country, reflects the stubborn way in which local rights and privileges are still asserted in various parts of Spanish territory. In spite of an apparently centralized and military government at Madrid, regionalism remains an enormous power in the political life of Spain. What control from the capital can do in the way of securing a Cortes of the desired color, the recent elections have shown again. As always, the Government wins. Its majority is what it chooses to make it. Sagasta gets a "vote of confidence" from the country, just as his rival, Silvela, would have done if he had remained at the head of the Ministry and kept his hand on the electoral machinery. Spaniards themselves laugh at the farce of these so-called elections. But, with all its appearance of arbitrary and unchecked power, the Government cannot ride over local prejudice too roughly. The Basque provinces would flame into rebellion if their old *fueros* were infringed upon; the Carlists are as stoutly insistent upon theirs as they were at the time of the Peace of Vergara; and the turbulent Republicans of Catalonia fiercely resent too open an appearance of dictation from Madrid. But Sagasta is too old a hand at the game to make it probable that he will force matters so as to bring on an open conflict, with possible disruption. Cervera appears to have been making an over-rhetorical and alarmist plea for a new navy.

THE DECISION, AND AFTER.

It is unfortunately true that the Supreme Court of the United States has not for some years enjoyed its old respect. In saying this we are but echoing the unconcealed opinion of lawyers who practise before it, and who are competent to pass upon its judicial reasoning. The thing speaks for itself. In nearly all the important cases from the income-tax decision down, the Court has been almost evenly divided, the prevailing opinion has not been written with the majestic march of logic which convinces the understanding while it settles the law, and the dissenting justices have expressed themselves with heat and almost with passion. This does not argue a happy personnel. The Court appears to be without a large and luminous mind like Marshall's, or the late Justice Miller's, to seize upon great principles and state them in such a way as to compel the assent of its associated and feebler intellects. The result is the divisions, we had almost said the wranglings, which have of late marked and marred the decisions of our highest court.

Monday's appearance of the Supreme Court, in passing upon many of the so-called insular cases before it, was certainly not of a sort to heighten either legal or general respect for it. This is confessed even by those who are pleased with the majority opinion. When two judges like Justice Brown and Justice White arrive at the same conclusion from openly and violently antagonistic premises, the lay mind may well think the course of reasoning tortuous. "I agree with you," said Justice White, "but your arguments are confused and wholly unconvincing, and your principles are in direct conflict with the true ones." This may be consistent with judicial dignity, but it does not make the bench dignified. Then there was the extraordinary realignment of the judges in the different cases—now dissent, now agreement, now this side, now that, but somehow a majority of one always preserved for the main contention of the Government. Old Thomas Fuller said that the only kind of logic he knew or cared about was that which, whatever the premises, brought out the praise and glory of God in the conclusion. So the majority of the Supreme Court have the inevitable air of having determined to uphold the Administration, no matter from what or how contradictory premises they started.

But while all this is regrettable, and while we should have maintained that it is, even if the judgment of the Court had been one that we did not regret, the law of the land has now been judicially determined. Five justices of the Supreme Court uphold the power of Congress to govern newly acquired territory as to Congress seemeth good. One of the five, Justice Brown, arrives at

his judgment by a course of reasoning which Justice White pronounces, with the concurrence of Justices Shiras and McKenna, to be mistaken and pernicious. Yet these three concur in the findings which they say are absurdly based. Justice Gray concurs for still other reasons of his own. Thus the apparently hopeless fusion of opposing opinions was accomplished, and "the judgment of the Court" placed on record to the effect that the Porto Rican Tariff Act is Constitutionally valid.

That is for the present the law. But does it affect the question of the expediency or the morality of a colonial policy? Not in the slightest degree. Justice Brown himself admits that the great questions about our island possessions are to be "finally decided" (then not yet decided) by "the American people," and distinctly foreshadows the possibility that the decision may be to permit our new-caught sullen peoples to "form independent governments." And in one respect the decision of the Court may yet help on the cause of Philippine independence. By asserting the absolute power of Congress to "dispose" of territory, it stops the mouths of those who have been saying that the Philippines are ours, and that there is no way of alienating them. But the Court's opinion knows nothing of a power which is absolute to acquire but impotent to alienate, and plainly points the legal way to permitting, in territory now under control of Congress, the formation of "independent governments." That is a judicial platform good enough for the advocates of Philippine independence to stand upon.

As for the main and prevailing opinion of the Court, so strangely arrived at—a wedding of contradictories—we believe that Justice Brown was unconsciously predicting its future in what he said of the Dred Scott case. In that opinion, he remarked, "the country did not acquiesce," and he added, "Changes in judicial as well as public sentiment seriously impair the authority of that case." Similar changes may yet sweep away the authority of Monday's decision of the Supreme Court. But the immediate duty is, while accepting it as law, to make it tributary to liberty. Congress has full power to do what it will with the islanders, says the highest court. Very well, let us see to it that Congress does nothing inconsistent with humanity, with justice, with our broadest and proudest American traditions. Public sentiment is above Congress and courts. An aroused and jealous democracy may easily brush away, if it will, all these miserable limitations upon the rights of man.

The appeal now lies to the spirit of fair play and of freedom. If we are not compelled to extend the privileges and guarantees of the Constitution to our helpless wards, all the more reason for

doing so voluntarily. The Supreme Court, it is true, in its apologetic and halting majority opinion, affirms that the fundamental provisions of the Constitution respecting life, liberty, and property do tacitly control Congress in legislating for dependencies. But, as the Chief Justice pointedly said in his dissenting opinion, if you grant unlimited power to tax, you grant unlimited power to dispose of property, liberty, yes, of life itself. If you take away the means of life, you take away life. No, it is idle to pretend that, under this decision of the Supreme Court, the island men have any rights which Congress is bound to respect. But what is the inference which lovers of liberty and of their kind should draw from that? Despair, or silent acquiescence in tyranny under the forms of law? Not for a moment. What they must seek to do, without hesitation or wavering, is to create an invincible body of public opinion which will ask, not what may we legally do, but what must we do as honest and consistent Americans, loyal to the principles of 1789.

RELATIONS WITH CANADA.

The Prime Minister of Canada, in reply to a question on Thursday, said that he had reason to believe that the Joint High Commission between Great Britain and the United States would resume its meetings at an early date. It may be assumed, therefore, that there is some prospect of a settlement of the questions which the Commission was unable to solve when the previous conference was held. The principal difficulty then was the Alaskan boundary dispute. If that question had been disposed of satisfactorily, everything else could have been easily managed. We might not have reached a treaty of reciprocity at that time, but we should have been in a fair way toward it.

The Alaskan boundary is still an obstacle of some magnitude. The opinion prevails in Canada that the United States contention that the true boundary runs parallel to the indentations of the coast, is contrary to all contemporaneous testimony and understanding; that the three Governments of Great Britain, Russia, and the United States understood that it followed the general contour, and not the small indentations of the seaboard; and that no different interpretation would ever have arisen if gold had not been discovered in the Klondike. However this may have been, the opposite opinion is now so generally held among us that any claim to the possession of the headwaters of the Lynn Canal by Canada, if put forward as a matter of right, would be rejected at once. On this point even those most friendly to Canada would agree. This is not, however, the last word on the subject. There may be means of sat-

isfying all the commercial wants of Canada without surrendering sovereignty over American territory. There may be a fair exchange of property, not inconsistent with the rights of the citizens of Skaguay or any other American town or settlement. The boundary dispute may, by mutual agreement, be referred to arbitration.

If the boundary dispute were amicably disposed of, the way would be open to better trade relations between the two countries. There can be no doubt that the Dominion Government was earnestly desirous of effecting a commercial agreement two years ago. The Liberals came into office pledged to do their utmost to obtain entrance to the markets of the United States for Canadian products. The majority of the people of Canada were in favor of this policy, but the manufacturing interests were not. In Montreal, one of the strongholds of the Liberals, the Board of Trade, when invited by the Government to give an expression of sentiment upon the arrangement through the Joint High Commission for negotiations for closer commercial relations with the United States, replied that it was opposed to reciprocal trade between Canada and the United States in manufactured articles and dairy products, until the preferential tariff with Great Britain had been in force a sufficient time to demonstrate the results of its provisions. It is evident that lumber, coal, fish, and general agricultural products barred the way to an agreement on the part of the United States Commissioners, and that manufactured articles barred the way for the Canadian Commissioners.

In Canada the results of the preferential tariff with Great Britain have been a surprise, inasmuch as the imports from the United States have very largely increased, while the imports from Great Britain have remained nearly stationary. Therefore, the opposition of the Montreal Board of Trade may be considered disposed of. It is noteworthy that the preferential tariff with Great Britain was a factor of no mean value in Canada's position during the negotiations through the Joint High Commission; as also that the Dominion Government is now sounding the other possessions of Great Britain upon the advisability of forming a commercial combination with Great Britain. The object of these moves is obvious. If they shall fail to induce the United States to agree to closer commercial relations, they will offer the alternative of enlarged trade with other countries.

Since the last session of the Commission, some changes have taken place on our own side, affecting the attitude of the United States and Canada toward each other. The extraordinary growth of our export trade has made protection look like small business. The evident

intention of President McKinley to push the pending reciprocity treaties to a conclusion will bring reciprocity with Canada to the front. It would be a trifle incongruous to compass sea and land in order to procure reciprocity with France, and at the same time to disregard it with a country separated from us only by an imaginary line.

As the situation between the two countries now stands, there is an extraordinary flow of capital and enterprise from the United States into Canada, and the probabilities are that the flow will steadily continue. This is introducing into Canada a colonizing influence by the United States that must build up a continental policy north and south of the boundary. If the Joint High Commission reassembles and arrives at an agreement satisfactory to Congress and the Dominion Parliament, this policy will rapidly gather strength. But even if an agreement for closer commercial relations be not made at the present time, the weakening of the protectionist sentiment in the United States, due to the astonishing growth of our export trade, will eventually open the door to freer trade with Canada, so far as it depends upon our volition. When that time comes, the farmers, the lumbermen, the miners, and the fishermen of Canada will compel the opposing interests to yield.

THE TARIFF AND THE TRUSTS.

In the May number of the *Quarterly Journal of Economics* Mr. Charles Beardsley discusses the question of the tariff in its relation to Trusts, or combinations formed for suppressing competition. He considers that the McKinley tariff of 1890 was the first great incitement to the formation of Trusts, for the Standard Oil Trust, although earlier in point of time, was not dependent on any tariff, and stood alone in the field for many years. The concentration of industry in large establishments was already taking shape, but the law of competition was in force generally. Directly after the passage of the McKinley tariff, however, the articles of sugar, starch, linseed oil, lead, whiskey, tobacco, and envelopes were made the subjects of monopoly, or attempted monopoly, under the protecting duties given to the producers. From that time to the present, Trusts and combines have multiplied in the land, and a new branch of industry has grown up, that of the promoter of combinations. Mr. Beardsley is of the opinion that the movement is inevitable, and he is not disposed to condemn it. On the contrary, he thinks that "it should be welcomed as an important step forward in the evolution of industry," but that it does not need to be helped forward by acts of Congress and ought not to be.

Mr. Beardsley gives a list of the prin-

cipal existing Trusts, with the rates of duty on competing articles imported from abroad, and the amount of such articles actually imported during the fiscal year 1900. Thus it appears that the American Steel and Wire Trust is protected by an average duty of 40.22 per cent., and that the importation of competing articles was \$174,816 for the year. The Tin-Plate Trust has a duty of nearly 47 per cent., and the importation was \$4,391,800. Of course the American tin plate was sold, or might have been sold, 47 per cent. higher here than it was offered in the world's markets, although the steel billets from which it is made in Wales are in part produced in the United States. Window glass is protected by a duty of 66 per cent. average, and the importation was \$1,530,637. This is also made by a Trust. Table glass, a separate concern, has 60 per cent. The National Salt Company has a duty of 89 per cent. on salt in bulk, the Starch Company 73 per cent., the Carbon Company 115 per cent. for electric-lighting carbons, the Distilling Company 123 per cent. protection against Scotch whiskey.

The conclusions reached by Mr. Beardsley are that this condition of things cannot last, and that it ought not to last. He holds that the tariff on goods of any sort of which the cost of production, including a fair profit, is no higher in the United States than in foreign countries, should be little or nothing. All duties above this are an incitement to monopoly and are sure to run into monopoly. Most iron and steel products, he contends, can now be produced in the United States as cheaply as anywhere else in the world, "if not more cheaply than anywhere else," yet they are protected by an average duty of 37 per cent. ad valorem. The paper industry is another in which we can compete with any nation on equal terms. In fact, our exports of paper exceed our imports, yet the duty on imported paper and manufactures of paper is equal to 29 per cent. ad valorem. It should be borne in mind, too, that imported articles must pay ocean and inland freights and other charges, which are in the nature of additional protection to the home producer.

Mr. Beardsley would not lower the tariff in a spirit of hostility to combinations, or for the purpose of crushing them out, but merely to correct monopoly abuses. He thinks, however, that the rapid progress of consolidation among the tariff-protected Trusts has made revision of the tariff necessary, and that it cannot be long delayed. The consolidation of an industry, he says, is no reason, of itself, for withdrawing protection, but the existing rates are in some cases so excessive, and the prices charged to the home consumer so oppressive, that the present condition may be described as dangerous. The facts collected in Mr.

Beardsley's paper make it an important contribution to the literature of the subject.

The discussion of Congressman Babcock's proposition to repeal the duties on iron and steel continues in the Western newspapers in a fitful way, showing that it is not to be put down by a sneer, or to be stamped out as a heresy in the Republican party. In fact, all signs point to a new political issue growing out of this question, not necessarily between the Republicans and the Democrats, but rather dividing both parties. The issue will come first between the moderates and the extremists in the Republican ranks, counting among the former such men as Mr. Kasson, Congressman Babcock, Senator Cullom, Senator Allison, and President McKinley himself, and, on the other hand, the Boston Home Market Club, the tariff-protected Trusts, Senators Lodge and Frye, the ship-subsidy crowd, and all who apprehend that any change of the tariff, even in the form of a reciprocity treaty, will open the whole question and bring in wholesale reductions.

The original theory of tariff protection as formulated by Hamilton, that it was intended merely to give manufacturing industries a chance to start, to be restricted to such as were not already established, and to be abandoned as soon as they were well going, has been lost sight of. Even Senator Hoar appealed the other day to "the doctrine of the great economic school which Hamilton founded," oblivious of the fact that Hamilton considered the iron and steel industry already established here in 1790, although he was willing to recommend temporary duties on those articles as high as 7½ and 10 per cent. Such anachronisms and such misconceptions cannot hold the ground much longer in the Republican party, or in any group of thinking men.

THE HAWAIIAN UNHAPPY FAMILY.

Meagre press dispatches have given only bare hints of the quarrels by which people in the Hawaiian Islands are now rent asunder. The political smoke and lava-flow are as if Mauna Loa were in eruption. Our cheerful Imperialists, however, pay no attention to these things. To annex an island they will throw themselves into a noble rage and defy the world; but to govern it well—fough! such plodding work is not for them. They are after another island by that time. Who does not remember the intimate knowledge of Hawaii displayed some years ago by every annexationist in this country? Why, the very children in the streets knew all about the wicked "monarchists" in Honolulu, and the heroic "patriots" who risked all in order to give away their country. But that was before we got the islands. Now that they are ours, we

care nothing for them. There is something in the Bible about compassing sea and land to make one proselyte, and his turning out, when made, twofold more the child of—well, the Imperialists are mighty in the Scriptures, and it is not necessary to complete the citation.

The bitterest controversy in the Territory of Hawaii is that which is raging between the Legislature and Governor. Under the terms of the organic act, the regular session of the Legislature expired by limitation on May 1. But it had not passed the necessary appropriation bills, and there were many other matters of legislation which had failed. Accordingly, a joint resolution was passed requesting Gov. Dole to extend the session. A petition to the same effect was laid before him by a committee of "Home Rulers," but the Governor "turned to them with a smile," and said that he should refuse to do anything of the kind. He added:

"The time of the session has been wasted by the law-makers, and the public funds have been dissipated without accomplishing any good results.

"I have it on good authority that the members of the Legislature have disregarded their oaths to such a degree as to have been guilty of taking bribes in consideration of their individual efforts in the interests of certain measures which came before them. I have this information on such excellent authority that it would be a dereliction in duty for me to hesitate in this matter, and I therefore deny the petition and refuse to extend the session as requested."

The leader of the "Home Rulers" "drew a deep breath" when he heard this, and "gasped with surprise." Then he told the Governor that it was a most serious charge which he had made against the Legislature, and one "that every man of honor among us wants to see proved." He probably meant disproved, unless he was an Irishman, like that other Celt who went to a lawyer to complain that so and so had called him a liar: "And I propose to make him prove it." Gov. Dole, however, declined to prove his charges, though, as he has served long on the bench and knows what legal evidence is, and is not a man given to impetuous utterance, it is probable he has something pretty definite to go upon.

But the Legislature took a glorious revenge. It adopted an address to President McKinley praying him to "remove from his high office" the Governor of the Territory. This official's high crimes and misdemeanors seemed a little vague in the specifications, it must be confessed. It is asserted that he has "lost the confidence of the majority of the people"; that he "has not their best interests at heart," and that he is "trying to take from its rightful owners, to give to a few, the heritage of the people." Those are even more serious charges than the ones made by Gov. Dole against the Legislature, but it is clear that, as they stand, it is impossible to prove them, however much men of honor may want to see them proved.

But what the Legislature really desires is to have the President order Gov. Dole to extend the session. "We know," they remark innocently, "that it is a matter out of your real sphere, yet a suggestion from you will be sufficient to accomplish the end." But as Mr. McKinley will scarcely make even a suggestion out of his real sphere, it is safe to say that the Legislature will be called, as Gov. Dole proposes, only in special session to pass appropriation bills, and to do nothing else.

The whole thing is plainly a disgusting political squabble. A set of immigrant promoters and schemers have seen their plans go wrong, and are filled with fury against Gov. Dole. Americans that they are, they speak of "his infamous republic" which he got the United States to annex, and actually go so far as to advocate a "revolution" against him. It is the *Honolulu Republican*, the organ of the smart and pushing crowd that has gone to the islands since annexation, which calls for this new Hawaiian revolution against a "pliant and weak Executive who would suck the life-blood out of this fair land." But Gov. Dole has received the endorsement of the Republican Central Committee of Hawaii, and appears to have the support of the great majority of conservative citizens, so that he will probably continue to suck blood as before.

Even Federal officials in Hawaii do not find themselves living in a happy family. The United States District Attorney recently made a savage arraignment of a jury which had refused to convict a man on the clearest evidence, and Judge Estee remarked from the bench that he "heartily endorsed" what District Attorney Baird had said of the repeated miscarriages of justice, and incontinently discharged the jury for the term. The thing was done, said the District Attorney, to "save the United States Government" the disgrace of such travesties of justice as had been witnessed in that court. Like truthful James, we but state the facts as we find them in the Hawaiian newspapers. We have no interpretation of them to insist upon, but we think the Imperialists and Annexationists ought to have one. At any rate, they ought not to be so silent about the Hawaii that they have got, and scream so loudly about some other islands that they want to get.

ART FOR THE CITY.

The Municipal Art Society differs from similar New York organizations in taking the city just as it finds it. While many organizations tacitly assume that the city should do things which it now leaves undone, or that it should undo what it has done already, the Municipal Art Society assumes that the broad lines of public expenditure

continental position, this would be easy to accomplish, even if opposed by the whole power of Great Britain. The seacoast States could defend themselves while the Interior States were overrunning Canada; but if the time should come when Great Britain was not able to maintain all of its possessions, the annexation of Canada could be made peaceably."

A Canadian might say with Parson Wilbur—

—"that all this big talk of our destinies
Is half on it ignorance, an' t' other half rum";

but what is your opinion of it, sir, you who print the above without comment and without protest? We are accustomed to menace and insult from such papers as the New York *Sun* and from such demagogues as Bourke Cockran. Do you think a widespread repetition of their sentiments in respectable quarters can fail to produce deep resentment here?

The improved tone of the American press of late towards England has led to a more friendly feeling in Canada for the United States, but there can be no cordiality on our part without a great change in your attitude towards us. We prize our liberty and autonomy as highly as any people that ever lived; we are firmly loyal to the British crown; and we are determined to build up a great independent and self-governing British Power on the north of this continent—a free community within a world-encircling empire.

American policy towards Canada has hitherto afforded a striking example of how a little mind may go with great possessions. The last thing we expect from the United States is magnanimity, yet that is the first essential towards genuine and permanent good feeling between us and our neighbors.

R. W. SHANNON.

OTTAWA, CANADA, December 21, 1901.

[Our opinion is, that our correspondent "P. J." was addressing a military *argumentum ad hominem* to the champions of colonial expansion; further, that he would not be found to be in favor of the use of force to attain that fusion of Canada and the United States which he might, in a perfectly friendly and neighborly spirit, believe to be naturally inevitable. But we do not hold ourselves responsible for the views of our correspondents.—ED. NATION.]

CANADA AND ALASKA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A short time since, the Toronto *Globe* printed a rumor from Ottawa that Canada was about to press again her recent claim to a portion of Alaska, and a second time to urge the United States to submit this demand to the arbitration of foreigners for settlement. But there is nothing in this demand to arbitrate.

Russia and England, after protracted negotiations, agreed by treaty, in 1825, upon a line to divide their respective North American possessions. This frontier was drawn from the Arctic Ocean, along the meridian of 141 degrees west longitude to Mount Saint Elias, and then was to follow the crest of the mountains running parallel to the coast to the head of the Portland canal, and down that sinuosity to the ocean in fifty-four degrees forty minutes north latitude. But

if at any point the crest of the mountains proved to be at a greater distance than ten marine leagues from the shore, then the frontier should run parallel to the sinuosity of the coast at a distance of ten marine leagues inland, but never further than that from the shore.

This gave to Russia a strip of territory, or *lisière*, from Mount Saint Elias to the Portland canal of sufficient width to entirely exclude the British Empire from any access to tide water above fifty-four degrees forty minutes. And that England was so excluded from contact with the sea north of fifty-four degrees forty minutes, the English and the Canadian Governments recognized, both on their maps and by the acts of their officials. This strip of territory, or *lisière*, became ours when we bought Alaska in 1867 from Russia, and we succeeded to all her rights of sovereignty.

If the claim of Canada—that she is entitled to many outlets upon tide water above fifty-four degrees forty minutes—were submitted to arbitration, and the judges decided anything in favor of Canada, it would be a clear gain for her. And if the judgment gave Canada but a single port, like Pyramid Harbor or Dyea on the Lynn Canal, for instance, the present and future value to the United States of the Alaskan *lisière* would be greatly impaired. The evidence in the case is all in favor of the United States, and shows that they are entitled, by long, uninterrupted occupancy and other rights, to an unbroken strip of territory on the mainland from Mount Saint Elias down to the Portland Canal. There is no more reason for this country to agree to refer its right to the possession and sovereignty of this unbroken Alaskan *lisière* to the decision of foreigners, than would be the case if the English Empire advanced a demand to sovereignty over the coast of the Carolinas or the port of Baltimore, and suggested that the claim should be referred to the judgment of the subjects of third Powers. Whether the frontier should pass over a certain mountain or through a given gorge is a proper subject for settlement by a mutual survey. But by no possibility has Canada any right to territory touching tide water above fifty-four degrees forty minutes. The United States should not consent to submit such a proposition to arbitration. T. W. BALCH.

PHILADELPHIA, December 27, 1901.

BYRON, COLERIDGE, AND DON JUAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Prothero, in the fifth volume of his excellent edition of Byron's 'Letters and Journals,' gives the following note at page 243: "Don Juan Tenorio of Seville was the hero of the Spanish mystery-play, the *Atheista Fulminato* (see Coleridge's 'Biographia Literaria,' vol. II., pp. 262 seqq.). The mystery was dramatized by Gabriel Téllez, i. e., Tirso de Molina," etc.

The existence of such a Spanish mystery-play has long been denied by the best foreign critics, but they have not explained the origin of the idea. Puibusque, in his 'Histoire Comparée des Littératures Espagnole et Française' (1843), first spread this story in Europe. He makes the same statement as that given above (vol. II., pp. 239, 467), and quotes as his authority "Coleridge, commentator of Byron's complete works," whose note he saw in the French translation of B. Laroche. Puibusque evidently

mistook an illustrative passage from the 'Biographia Literaria' for an editor's note. He gives plausibility to his statement by quoting scenes from this alleged 'Atheista Fulminato.'

Coleridge makes his original statement (in the 'Biog. Lit.') in the criticism on Bertram. He mentions "an old Spanish play entitled *Atheista Fulminato*, formerly, and perhaps still, acted in the churches and monasteries of Spain, and which, under various names (Don Juan, the Libertine, etc.), has had its day of favor in every country throughout Europe." Later he quotes parts of different scenes, apparently his own translation from this Spanish play; and, several pages farther on, he speaks of Shadwell's "Libertine," "an adaptation of the *Atheista Fulminato* to the English stage in the reign of Charles the Second." But what Coleridge does not state is that the scenes which he quotes are nothing but extracts from "The Libertine," word for word! Moreover, the statement about the Spanish "Atheista" is apparently nothing but a confused reminiscence of the following sentence from Shadwell's preface to his play: "And I have been told by a worthy Gentleman, that many Years ago (when first a Play was made upon this Story in Italy), he has seen it acted there by the name of *Atheisto Fulminato*, in Churches on *Sundays*, as a Part of Devotion," etc. This religious play was, of course, subsequent, not prior to, the Spanish drama said to be by Téllez.

We see that the whole myth about an early Spanish mystery-play is based on a strange perversion of Shadwell by Coleridge, who did not see that *fulminato* is Italian, not Spanish. Puibusque, in repeating the error, gave the word its Spanish termination, which served to strengthen the roots of the legend. S. G. MORLEY.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY, December 16, 1901.

COMPLAINT AND REPLY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the review of the 'Queen's Comrade,' which appears in your paper of the 14th inst., there is one sentence which, more than all others, is quite unjustifiable. Your critic says that such history as the volumes contain "treats chiefly of things that either never happened at all, or, having happened, were of little account." As to the first part of this sentence, any reader will see that authorities are given for every statement made; and, as for the second, the downfall of James, the Revolution, the reigns of William and Mary and Anne, are of some little account. As your reviewer's remark, which is neither true nor just, is calculated to injure the sale of the book, I hope you will have the kindness to insert this correction in your pages.

Faithfully yours,

FITZGERALD MOLLOY.

90 PORTSMOUTH ROAD, LONDON, W.
November 28, 1901.

[Our meaning was, that of the history which the book contains, much, like all history of intrigue, cabal, and conspiracy, had, of necessity, to do with many things which never came to pass, or, having come to pass, were of little account. We never, of course, intended to refer to

faits accomplis like the Revolution and the events of the reigns preceding and following it, but to the workings of the under world and the back-stairs, with which the present volumes have very properly to do.—ED. NATION.]

"TO CHANCER."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the 'Century Dictionary' we read:

"Chancer, *v. t.* [Formed from *chancery*.] To adjust according to principles of equity, as would be done by a court of chancery; as, to *chancer* a forfeiture. *Mass. Prov. Laws.*"

And in the 'Oxford Dictionary':

"Chancer, *v. rare.* [? *f.* Chancery.] *trans.* To 'tax' (an account or bill of costs)."

The editors of the Century content themselves with a vague reference; Dr. Murray gives but a single quotation (from an American work, dated 1798); and in both dictionaries to *chancer* is regarded as certainly or probably formed from the noun *chancery*. Of the fact that to *chancer* is ultimately derived from the noun *chancery*, there can be no doubt; but it appears, from a work only recently published, that there was formerly a verb, the existence of which does not seem to have been suspected, namely, to *chancery*. There are many examples of this verb in the work first quoted below:

"The defendt desiring a chancery the plaintiff Gonn & not to be found The Court ordered a respite of yr execution till the 9 of october next to wch time this Court Adjourned themselves [& chancered the damage Additionall to 40^s only] . . . The plaintiff desired his bond might be chancered The Court having heard the plaintiff & defendt's pleas as to the Chancering of the bond did chancery it to sixty-eight pounds five shilling & ten pence money & Costs of Courts two pounds sixteen shillings & six pence. . . . In answer to the motion of Joseph Helljer The Court chancered his bond to one hundred & eight pounds money & Costs of Courts." 1674, 1684, 1685, *Records of the Court of Assistants, Mass.* (1901), pp. 21, 261, 287.

"And it is hereby further enacted . . .

"That there be a high court of chancery within this province, who shall have power and authority to hear and determine all matters of equity, . . . provided, nevertheless, that the justices in any of the courts aforesaid, where the forfeiture of any penal bond is found, shall be and hereby are impowered to chancery the same unto the just debt and damages." 1632, *Acts & Resolves of the Prov. of Mass.* (1833), i. 75.

"Be it enacted . . . That in all cases brought or to be brought for trial in the superiour court of judicature, . . . where the forfeiture or penalty annexed unto any articles, . . . shall be found by verdict of jury, . . . the justices of the said courts respectively where the trial is had are hereby impowered and authorized to moderate the rigour of the law, and on consideration of such cases, according to equity and good conscience to chancer the forfeiture, . . . and enter up judgement for the just debt and damages, and to award execution accordingly." 1638, *do.*, i. 356.

"Upon the humble petition of William Collins, of Newport, tanner, to this Assembly, for the chancering of two bonds, one of thirty six pounds, five shillings, and one of twenty-five pounds; . . .

"This Assembly considering the matter, do order and enact, that the said bonds be by the Governor and council truly chancered to the principal and interest, and entered on said bonds, signed by the recorder." 1707, *Rhode Island Col. Records* (1859), iv. 26.

"The case being called, . . . judgment was given for the appellee, in that the bond should be chancered; and that the costs and damages allowed

the appellee should amount to £15 9s." 1709, *do.*, iv. 80.

"Upon the petition of Lt. Charles Whiting, praying that an arbitration bond . . . might be chancered: This Assembly hath considered that the said Watson shall recover by virtue of the judgment of said superiour court given upon said bond, the sum of four pounds seventeen shillings and five pence, and no more, and the said bond is hereby chancered and reduced to that sum." 1719, *Connecticut Col. Records*, (1872), vi. 127.

"The appellant and appellee being duly heard, this Assembly do adjudge and decree, that the judgment of the General Court of Trials . . . be, and it is hereby chancered down to twenty shillings." 1722, *R. I. Col. Rec.*, iv. 320.

"Whereupon it is resolved, that the aforesaid note is chancerable, and said judgment is hereby chancered to the sum given by the said arbitrators." 1726, *Cl. Col. Rec.*, vii. 74.

"It is not easily to be accounted for, how *E. g. land, France and Holland*, have tacitly allowed their several *American Colonies*; by *Laws* of their several Provinces, by *Chancering* in their Courts of Judicature, and by *Custom*; to depreciate from Time to Time, the value of their original Denominations, to defraud their Principals and Creditors in *Europe*." 1740, W. Douglass, *Discourse Concerning the Currency of the British Plantations in America*, p. 7.

"Voted that Messrs. Peter Gillman, Jotham Odiorne & Mr. Hunking Wentworth be a Committee of this House to joyne such as the Hon^{ble} the Council shall appoint to ascertain the value of money & Exche^r for chancering the value of the bills of Credit." 1732, *New Hampshire Prov. Papers* (1871), v. 159.

"Resolved by this Assembly, that the bond recited in said petition, on which the judgment of the superior court referred to was rendered, be chancered down to the sum of sixty-two pounds lawful money." 1764, *Cl. Col. Rec.*, xi. 547.

"Upon the memorial of Caleb Turner . . . showing . . . That it so happened that said Peletiah's business required him to go to sea, and the stamp-act being about to take place he incautiously went to sea, so that the said bond became forfeited &c; praying that the sum might be chancered down &c., as per memorial on file: Resolved by this Assembly, that the said bond of recognizance be and the same is hereby chancered and abated down to the sum of twenty pounds lawful money only." 1768, *do.*, xiii. 110.

Of the six words which appear in these extracts, no fewer than five—*chancerable*, *chancering*, *chancercise*, *chancering*, and to *chancery*—have failed to obtain recognition in the dictionaries. Mr. John Noble, the editor of the work first quoted, tells me that to *chancer* is still heard in Massachusetts, though the verbal noun *chancering* is more common. On the other hand, from a Philadelphia lawyer I learn that he is not familiar with these words. Is it possible that the entire group of words is restricted to New England? Perhaps some of your readers learned in the law can give some further information.

ALBERT MATTHEWS.

Boston, December 17, 1901.

THE KAIBEL CLASSICAL LIBRARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The writer has been asked to make known through the medium of your paper that the library of the late Dr. Kaibel, Professor of Greek and Latin at the University of Göttingen, will be offered for sale in its entirety, and that a manuscript catalogue in a few copies is being prepared, to be sent to libraries for inspection. Applications should be made to Prof. Dr. Carl Dziatzko, Universitäts-Bibliothekar, Göttingen, Germany. The library contains about

4,000 bound volumes in good condition, and some 3,000 to 4,000 pamphlets, and is particularly rich in periodicals, reproductions of inscriptions, and reprints.

AKSEL G. S. JOSEPHSON.

JOHN C. FREAR LIBRARY, CHICAGO,
December 21, 1901.

Notes.

Howard Wilford Bell (London and New York) is engaged in a novel enterprise styled "The Unit Library," which is to consist of reprints of classic works (ancient and modern) in a uniform size of 4½ by 6½ inches, edited by William Laird Clowes and A. R. Waller. The print will be clear without display or ornament, and the price will be based on the "unit" of 25 pages, plus paper or cloth or leather binding. The first hundred books already announced lead off with Bunyan's 'Pilgrim's Progress' and end with Rousseau's 'Confessions.' The experiment will be watched with interest.

Another "unit" system is to be employed by the New England Historic Genealogical Society of Boston in undertaking the publication of the vital records of towns in Massachusetts (some 190 in number) whose Records are not already printed or on the way to be. Each town is estimated to require an average of 150 printed pages, octavo; and subscriptions to the series will be received at the rate of one cent a page, which includes binding. This is expected to meet the cost of 600 copies. The Records will not be brought down beyond 1845, after which date duplicate copies were filed with the Secretary of the Commonwealth. Communications should be addressed to Henry Ernest Woods, editor, No. 18 Somerset Street, Boston.

Benjamin H. Sanborn & Co., Boston, have in preparation an 'Atlas of the Geography and History of the Ancient World,' in forty-eight maps and plans.

'Deutschland in China, 1900-1901,' is the title of an elaborately illustrated work, to be published under Government supervision and the general editorship of Count Waldersee, in the near future, and intended to be practically the permanent and semi-official record of the German expedition to China. The letterpress itself consists of thirteen chapters from the pens of official participants, and the illustrations (published by the house of August Bogel, Düsseldorf) have been prepared by or under the direction of the battle painter Roscholl, who himself took part in the expedition. The volume will cost thirty marks, and will not be obtainable through the regular book trade until the participants in the expedition and the various libraries have been supplied.

Among the novelties of the ever youthful *Almanach de Gotha*, for 1902, in its 139th year (Gotha: Perthes; New York: Lemcke & Buechner), is a calendar of princely and noble birthdays which editors, court officials, and others, it is suggested, may find handy. There is also a new list of orders. The King and Queen of Italy, and Prince George, the ruler of Crete, furnish three of the four regulation portraits. Under Holland is given the personnel of the new Hague International Arbitration Tribunal, and mention of this leads the editors to remark with uncon-

rate some important persons among them, did not really wish to stamp out the insurrection, whose continuance gave them opportunities of enriching themselves through extra pay and through contracts for military stores and supplies of various kinds. If this be true, these officers overplayed their game with a characteristic want of foresight, for any one might have predicted from the beginning of 1897, if not earlier, that foreign intervention was approaching. It is, at any rate, clear, that, if the Spanish officials really wished to suppress the insurrection, there must have been extraordinary incapacity and probably a great deal of corruption among them, for the balance of military strength was altogether in their favor, and a large part of the population was always on their side.

During the last few months Cuba—that is to say, the intelligent part of the Cuban population, and especially those who have something to lose or to gain—has been agitated by two questions: the promised departure of the American administrators and the promised arrival of Sir William Van Horne, the Canadian railway magnate, who has undertaken a large scheme for the construction of a trunk line through the east and east-central parts of the island. These two events are intimately connected, for with the withdrawal of American administration a new chapter in Cuban history will open, and no one knows what sort of government will be created, what sort of order will be kept, what sort of facilities for agricultural and commercial development will be provided. Yet it is largely upon these things that the success of railway schemes must depend. Whatever opinions any one may hold as to the need for American intervention in 1898, or as to the policy which Congress and the Executive have followed since then, there ought not to be any difference of opinion as to the admirable spirit in which Gen. Wood and his principal subordinates have discharged their difficult task, or as to the substantial value of the work they have done for Cuba. But these topics are too large to be entered on at the end of a letter.

Correspondence.

CANADA AND ALASKA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent, T. W. Balch, states that there is nothing to arbitrate in the dispute between Canada and the United States over the boundary between Alaska and our northwest territories. Whether this is so may be learned from the notes exchanged between the United Kingdom and the United States upon the subject up to and including those of October 20, 1899, fixing a provisional boundary. Here it will be found that the problem at issue involves the interpretation of a treaty made between England and Russia in 1825, whose terms are ambiguous, requiring for their true construction a consideration of the state of geographical knowledge at the time the document was signed, a reference to the correspondence which led up to it, and the application of well-known principles of international law.

Article III. of the treaty provided that, from a certain point at 56 degrees north

latitude, "the line of demarcation shall follow the crest of the mountains situated parallel to the coast, as far as its point of intersection with the 141st degree of west longitude." The whole region is highly mountainous, and the question arises, what are the mountains whose crest is to be followed?

Article IV., section 2, provides that where the crest of the mountains is more than ten miles from the shore, the line shall be drawn parallel to the sinuosities of the coast, but never to be more than ten marine leagues from it. Upon this ground the United States raises the contention that the boundary is intended to be throughout not less than thirty miles from the ocean, whereas the language of the document is "not more than."

Further, the question arises, what is the "coast" spoken of? In the negotiations which preceded the treaty of 1825, the Russian plenipotentiaries distinguished between the "coast" of the main ocean and the shores of inlets. Canada takes her stand upon the sense in which the term was used by those who drew up the treaty. Is that position so clearly wrong that it is not even open to argument?

Your correspondent says: "The evidence in the case is all in favor of the United States, and shows that they are entitled, by long, uninterrupted occupancy and other rights, to an unbroken strip of territory on the mainland from Mount St. Elias down to the Portland Canal." Why, then, is the United States unwilling to submit its claims to an impartial tribunal?

Canada sought to have this frontier ascertained in 1872, shortly after the purchase of Alaska by the United States, but without success, although Hamilton Fish, the Secretary of State, was favorable. In 1892 an international survey commission was appointed to ascertain facts and data, and the commission made a joint report on December 31, 1895, accompanied with elaborate maps and photographic views. Up to this time Vancouver's maps, made in 1792, were the standard and only original authority, except that the shores of the Lyon Canal had been surveyed in 1881. In 1898-99 the British delegates to the International Commission, including Lord Herschell, offered certain terms to the United States, and, in the event of these not being acceptable, they expressed their willingness to refer the whole question to arbitration on the lines of the Venezuela boundary treaty. That treaty provided that adverse holding for fifty years should make a good title, and also that such effect should be given to occupation for less than fifty years as reason, justice, the principles of international law, and the equities of the case required. The United States Commissioners refused both offers, making, however, a counter-proposal that, in the event of their consenting to arbitration, it should be provided beforehand that the settlements on tidewater made on the authority of the United States should continue to be American territory, even though they might prove to be on the British side of the line. In other words, they demanded that Canada should yield her rights as a preliminary condition to having those rights determined.

The claims put forward by Canada are made in good faith, and based upon grounds which, if disputable, are none the less solid. The issue is precisely of the kind to which

arbitration is suitable. Yet the United States, which insisted upon arbitration in the Venezuela boundary difficulty, refuses it here, acts as judge and advocate in its own cause, and decides that there is "nothing to arbitrate."

R. W. SHANNON.

OTTAWA, CANADA, January 11, 1902.

STERNE'S INFLUENCE IN FRANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In reviewing last week (January 9) the December meeting of the Modern Language Association, "N. M." says: "Professor Baldwin showed that the influence of Sterne's works upon French literature had been much underestimated." This conclusion would hardly be possible, in view of the studies of M. Texte. At any rate, my point was, that the influence of Sterne in France, being the influence almost exclusively of 'Tristram Shandy,' and leading only to a certain kind of imitation, could hardly be called literary. Of Sterne's best art, the 'Sentimental Journey,' the only direct literary influence known to me, in spite of the many French translations, is the 'Voyage autour de ma Chambre' of Xavier de Maistre. Instead of "underestimated," therefore, the word should be *misinterpreted*. I shall be obliged by this correction—the more, if it lead to any suggestion of further evidence for or against my actual conclusion.

CHARLES SEARS BALDWIN.

YALE UNIVERSITY, January 14, 1902.

Notes.

Mr. Clarke Conwell, The Elston Press, Pelham Road, New Rochelle, N. Y., will publish directly 'The Art and Craft of Printing,' by William Morris, being a complete record of Morris's speeches and writings on this theme and his work at the Kelmscott Press, with reproductions of many ornaments and sample pages. Mr. Conwell also announces as in press Morris's 'Some Notes on Early Woodcut Books.'

A study of Robespierre, by Hilaire Belloc; 'The Apostles' Creed: Its Origin, Its Purpose, and Its Historical Interpretation,' by Dr. Arthur C. McGiffert; and 'Through Science to Faith,' by Dr. Newman Smyth, are forthcoming from Charles Scribner's Sons.

D. Appleton & Co. open, this month, their "World Series" with 'Britain and the British Seas,' by H. J. Mackinder; and will also have ready 'Financial Crises and Periods of Industrial and Commercial Depression,' by Theodore E. Burton.

'The Life of a Century, 1800 to 1900,' by Edwin Hodder (London: Newnes, New York: Charles Scribner's Sons), is a popular compilation, occupied mainly with the history and development of the British Empire during the period which it covers. Its record of mechanical progress takes a wider range, including even an account of the steel sky scrapers of New York. The book makes no pretension to philosophical or literary value, but it is likely to answer well enough its purpose of supplying a readable narrative, and it is, in the main, accurate, though not quite free from political partisanship. It contains over five hundred illustrations.

The second volume of Mr. Rhee's documentary History of the Smithsonian Institution, of which we recently noticed volume I., has appeared. It contains papers connected with the Fifth to the Fifty-fifth Congresses, 1847-1899, and forms a volume of more than 800 pages, closing with a list of the official members of the "Establishment" and a copious index. Among the matters treated, of especial public interest are the establishment of the National Zoological Park and the Astrophysical Observatory. Altogether the two volumes preserve in convenient form a mass of information as to the inception and growth of a unique scientific institution, which will be of permanent value to those interested either in the functions of our Government, the attitude of public men towards science, or the evolution of scientific agencies.

'The Latin Quarter' is the title by which the translators seek to represent Murger's 'Scènes de la vie de Bohème' (Doubleday, Page & Co.). The inevitable disappearance, in translation, of much of the characteristic humor and wit serves to emphasize the sordid side of the life depicted; here and there familiar expressions have been misunderstood. At the opening of chapter xiii., Colline was eager to see his speculations *en caractère Cicéro*, that is, in the special type so called; the phrase has no reference to the *Ciceronian* quality of Colline's style, as the translator puts it. Musette's projected marriage draws from Rodolphe the natural exclamation, "Contre qui, Seigneur?" feebly and incorrectly rendered in "To whom, my lord?" Mr. Arthur Symonds's introduction is not indispensable.

Translations of Alphonse Daudet's 'Lettres de Mon Moulin' and 'Contes du Lundi' have been added to the series of "Little Masterpieces" (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). In the former it may be noted that "Il les perdait toutes de la même façon" does not mean "He lost them in all kinds of ways" (p. 18). Again, by the sot who "si souvent secouait les puce à sa pauvre Clairen," Daudet colloquially describes a wife-beater, not a man who ungallantly "shook his fleas on his poor Clairette." The introduction to the 'Contes' contains a few questionable literary statements, such as that "Daudet was, in a certain sense, the pioneer of the modern Short Story in France."

To the discussion of university reorganization, in its bearings on the substitution of modern languages for the classics, M. Gustave Lanson contributed several articles in the *Figaro*, now collected in book form, under the title, 'L'Université et la Société Moderne' (Paris: Armand Colin). The question being practically settled, the chief interest of this little volume rests rather on the clear common-sense views of its author than on its value as a factor in the decisions. But, for unconventionality of opinion, M. Lanson is certainly remarkable among the disputants. He does not hesitate to tell his countrymen of the bias given to French culture through excess of literary training; and he also insists that modern languages, in order to justify their presence among higher studies, must reject scholastic, for strictly practical, methods.

A second attempt this season to improve on Mother Goose, 'Mother Goose's Menagerie,' by Carolyn Wells, with colored illustrations by Peter Newell (Boston: Noyes, Platt & Co.), proves equally futile with the

first. Miss Wells's ear for rhythm is insufficient for her ambitious metres, and her jests are often much above her audience. Mr. Newell's designs are narrowly mannered, but have some drollery and are better than the jingles.

Dodd, Mead & Co. issue in pamphlet form a 'Bibliography of the First Editions in Book Form of the Works of Alfred, Lord Tennyson.' The limitation expressed in the title is, we think, regrettable, for a little more diligence would have added to the list the place of first publication of every poem of Tennyson's. But perhaps it was too much to expect that both the student of literary history and the collector should be regarded in a work of this character. Bibliographically, the work seems to be thoroughly done, being more complete than any previous work in this field. The descriptions are full and accurate, and the title-pages of the most notable issues are reproduced. The primary object of the work is to describe accurately a complete series of Tennyson first editions which Dodd, Mead & Co. have gradually brought together and now offer for sale. But since the list grew to be, for collectors' purposes, a complete bibliography of Tennyson, it is issued in two editions of 250 and 56 copies respectively.

We cannot praise the technical quality of Professor Du Bois's "Select Bibliography of the American Negro, for General Readers," one of the Atlanta University publications. "Explicit suggestions and criticisms are invited" on the title-page, and we will remark that the classification is quite erratic, the sub-arrangement neither alphabetical nor geographical, the typographical errors too numerous—"F. J. May" for Samuel J., "Nicholay and Hay" for Nicolay—the references far too vague, e. g., "*Nation*, xxviii." Why should Olive Schreiner's 'Trooper Peter Hallock in Mashonaland' be found here? Why should works on fugitive slaves and the Underground Railroad be classed under "Emancipation," being ante-bellum in theme; and the Life of Garrison be placed under the same rubric and not under the preceding one, "Abolition Movement?" This well-meant little pamphlet betrays inexperience and a mind not orderly.

The "Annual List" of new and important books added to the Boston Public Library contains 296 pages of titles classified under 22 subjects. It makes a handy reference chronicle of the English literature of the past year on nearly every conceivable topic. In addition to the synopsis of classification, there is an index of biographies arranged alphabetically by subjects.

The London Publishers' Circular for December 21, 1901, contains a complete exposure of the latest Bacon-Shakspeare cypherer, viz., Mrs. E. W. Gallup. This lady, having found the key, has extracted a prose translation of Homer's Iliad hidden in cypher by Bacon in Burton's 'Anatomy of Melancholy.' Mr. R. B. Marston, editor of the Circular, shows, with the aid of the deadly parallel column, that Bacon relied, then, mainly on Pope's translation nearly a century before it was published. This beats the feat of Shaksperizing all hollow. True, however, to his old instinct of concealment, Bacon altered Pope's "thirty sable vessels" into "thirty sable shippes," and "Messe for silver doves renowned" into "Messeis, renowned for silver doves"; yet took all the risks of prophetic plagiarism when he followed Pope in

numberless divergences from Homer of insertion and omission. But perhaps he anticipated that posterity might adopt Mr. Marston's charitable view that "Pope must have discovered the key to his cypher, and cribbed his translation." Mr. Marston admits that Mrs. Gallup's "bilateral cypher" imposed upon him at first, from the samples, as it did upon the cynical W. H. Mallock.

In a review published in the *Expository Times*, of Edinburgh, Prof. J. G. Tasker calls attention to a curious slip in a recent bibliography in the *Theologische Rundschau*. Under the heading "History of Israel" he has found the following entry: "Lamb (Charles), Essays of Elia." "Let us hope," comments Professor Tasker, "that the mistake has introduced some German student of the Hebrew prophet's life to the genial English essayist."

By a kind of poetic justice, among the very first undertakings of the new International Association of Academies of Sciences is to be a critical edition of the entire literary remains of the philosopher Leibniz, as it was he who first advocated the international union of savants that has only now been realized. The actual work of preparing this edition is being done jointly by the Royal Academy of Berlin and the Paris Academy of Sciences, and Academy of Moral and Political Sciences, the original proposal having emanated from the last-mentioned. The phenomenal range of learning and literary activity of Leibniz made it practically impossible for a single Academy to produce this edition, the preparation of which requires the combined efforts of mathematicians, philosophers, theologians, jurists, and historians. The edition will contain from 130 to 140 volumes.

The extensive excavations which the French Government has been making in Delphi since 1892 are approaching completion. The most important work done recently has been to lay bare the Pythian Stadium, which is nearly 178 metres in length and from 25 to 28 metres wide. As the whole sacred district of Delphi consists of rocky terraces, it was not an easy task to build a hippodrome on the very sides of Parnassus. The vast expense of the work can be judged from the detailed reports of the costs, which are still extant. It has been found that, at the starting-place, small depressions were dug out, where those who participated in the races were compelled to stand until the signal was given. There are starting-places for eighteen runners. That these took their calling seriously is evident from an inscription, dating probably from the fifth pre-Christian century, which reads as follows: "No wine shall be brought into the temple of Endromos [the god of the racers]; but if it nevertheless be, then he for whom it is brought shall appease the god with a sacrifice, and pay five drachmas, of which the informer shall receive one-half."

A geological map of Saxony has recently been completed for the Government of that kingdom, consisting of no less than 123 separate sections, each covering about two square miles of territory, and each representing a year's labor on the part of one geologist at a cost of preparation ranging from thirty to forty thousand marks. It has already proved useful in determining the routes of new railroads, and especially in securing new water supplies for the

bourg, turned the guns of Paris against the royal troops, and saved Condé. This exploit marked the end of the heroic part of her life.

We hope that Arvède Barine will soon give us as interesting an account of the second part of the life of this extraordinary person, who, with all her folly and vanity, is, nevertheless, worthy of some sympathy, and is, at any rate, a very original figure.

Correspondence.

WHAT HAS TAMED THE COLLEGES?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A newspaper item, lately noticed, relates to the deportation of students from Russian universities. Many scores, perhaps many hundreds, having been concerned in revolutionary demonstrations, have been sent to the army to serve terms of various lengths. The statement calls to mind the fact that students, as a class, have been restive under oppression. From the schools ardent and enthusiastic young men have swarmed out to do battle for liberty; their words and their works have stirred us deeply. When, just before the civil war, an oration, entitled "Italia Resurgens," was pronounced by one who afterwards commanded colored troops, he received such applause as had seldom been heard in the college church; and later, when the stress of the civil war was on us, self-surrender to principle was strikingly illustrated by the young men of the schools as singly, or in little groups, or, as in one case, in a full company, they entered the military service "to make men free." How fitting it would be that some adequate record of those words and deeds should be made.

And now, when the "avowed object" of a needless war is disregarded, when information in regard to our "criminal aggression" is denied to our people, in whose name the war is carried on; when the national Administration is adopting the measures of Lord North and George III.; and when American principles are again treated with insolence, as in the days of American slavery, it seems that some protest from the colleges is needed. John Flske, speaking of the insignificant tax which was the occasion of the Revolutionary war, says: "The effect which a blow in the face would produce upon a barbarian, will be brought upon a civilized man by the assertion of some far-reaching legal principle, which only in a subtle and ultimate analysis includes the possibility of a blow in the face."

What has tamed the student body?

What has silenced the teaching force?

January 17, 1902.

H.

THE PHILIPPINE SOLDIER'S RETURN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your No. 1904, under "The Week," appears a short article, concerning the soldier in his relation to the service in the Philippines, which shows such a marked misapprehension of the subject that I cannot but believe you will allow yourself to be set right.

The failure of soldiers to reenlist in the opinions, and their desire to "get home," do show "how utterly unattractive the

insular conditions are." It would be the same under any conditions of climate and place. It is a well-known fact that soldiers, especially the youngsters that have gone into the ranks for the adventure of it (like most of those in the Philippines), like to go back to their homes and friends to tell their deeds. I have, in connection with the discharge of the late volunteer regiments, and of the regular soldiers being discharged at this camp, seen the discharge certificates of many thousand soldiers returned from the islands, and scarcely one of them all has not borne the names of one or more—usually several—actions, under the head of "Battles, Engagements, Skirmishes, and Expeditions," in which the soldier had taken part. Almost every man has been under fire one or several times, and he wants to go home and talk about it. After discharged soldiers have gone home and spent two or three months with their friends and kin, a large proportion of them are ready to "take on again."

And, further, the Department is experiencing no difficulty in enlisting men for service in the Philippines, although the same cannot be said with respect to the companies of seacoast artillery serving in the States.

It is, however, a pity that steps have not been taken to induce soldiers to reenlist in the Philippines. When the cost is considered of returning a soldier to the United States, and giving him his pay and allowances during the time consumed in the voyage, and the cost of recruiting a man to take his place, transporting him to the islands, and paying him for all this time lost, a bounty of say \$500 would be a cheap price to pay every soldier that would reenlist and continue with his company in the islands—without taking into account the fact that a trained soldier would be gotten, instead of a raw recruit that is only a burden to his company and an expense to the Government for at least his first six months.

M. F. STEELE,

Captain Sixth Cavalry.

DISCHARGE CAMP, ANGEL ISLAND, CAL.
January 8, 1902.

PRESIDENT MCKINLEY AND THE WAR WITH SPAIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A hundred times I have pronounced the statement that the late President McKinley was forced into the attack on Spain against his will an absurdity. Now that it has appeared in the *Nation*, I am almost compelled to doubt my sanity. For nearly forty years now, the *Nation* has been to me Holy Scripture. I have accustomed myself seldom to confute, but always to understand, what I read in it. But this I cannot understand. It must be at least conceivable, but to me it is still inconceivable.

Did Mr. McKinley say so? That would be evidence that he thought so; but might he not have been laboring under a delusion? If the thing was impossible, he certainly was; if it was possible, then I suggest that we make it impossible by Constitutional amendment or otherwise, and that right soon. If it was true, then his subsequent conduct should be reconcilable with it; is it so? Let there be light.

Respectfully,

TRUTHSEEKER.

GRANVILLE, O., January 15, 1902.

[The most direct and positive evidence

on this question is the late Representative Bontelle's assertion that a belligerent group in the House "held a stop-watch over the President." This implies that there was a time when he was indisposed to go to war. His refusal to submit the cause of the *Maine's* destruction to arbitration—the last straw of drowning peace marked the completeness of his surrender to the war-makers, and also of his assumption of moral responsibility for the ensuing hostilities. We will add our opinion that he still posed as a friend of peace after he had made up his mind to succumb—thereby lulling into fatal inactivity that part of the public which was revolted by the mere thought of war.—ED. NATION.]

FACTS ABOUT THE ALASKAN BOUNDARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As Mr. Balch, in common with almost all the writers and speakers in this country who touch upon the matter, has much befogged the real points at issue, I earnestly hope that you will permit me, through your columns, to give a brief statement of the facts upon which Canada bases her claim. They are as follows:

(1.) That the strait now called Portland Channel, through which the United States have run their line of demarcation, is not, and cannot be, the Portland Channel referred to in the Anglo-Russian Convention of 1825, upon which the title of the United States to their Alaskan territory is founded; and that, in consequence of this erroneous assumption, Canada has been deprived of a large extent of territory rightfully belonging to her.

(2.) That, in running their line of demarcation ten marine leagues from the shores of every inlet that debouches from the sea-coast, instead of from the sea-coast itself, the United States have violated the true intent of the treaty; these inlets being, in fact, but narrow fjords, only a few miles in width at their greatest extension, and in no sense being a part of the coast proper.

In support of the first contention, I would refer to the words of the treaty itself. In laying down the line of demarcation, it says:

"À partir du point le plus méridional de l'île dite Prince of Wales, lequel point se trouve sous le parallèle du 51me degré 40 minutes de latitude nord, et entre le 131me et le 133me degré de longitude ouest, la dite ligne remontera au nord le long de la passe dite Portland Channel, jusqu'au point de la terre ferme où elle atteint le 55me degré de latitude nord; de ce dernier point la ligne de démarcation suivra la crête des montagnes situées parallèlement à la côte, jusqu'au point d'intersection du 141me degré de longitude ouest, etc."

Now I affirm that no unprejudiced person who reads the above and afterwards consults a map of the territory involved, can say that they furnish sufficient evidence to establish the claim of the United States.

By the terms of the treaty, the line of demarcation is to begin at the southernmost point of the Prince of Wales Island; from that point it is to *ascend* to the north along a strait called Portland Channel until it

reaches a point on the mainland where it attains the 56th degree of north latitude. Does the line as laid down by the United States do this? Not by any manner of means! Instead of ascending to the north, as the treaty says it shall do, it actually *descends*, passing along a line a little south of east, for a distance of one hundred and thirty miles! Then, and then only, it begins to meander northward.

So far, it must be clear to the unprejudiced investigator that there is something wrong either with the treaty or with the American interpretation thereof. Let us see, then, what other interpretation is possible and reasonable.

Turn again to the map, and place one end of a ruler upon the southernmost point of Prince of Wales Island, which, as we have seen, is the place where the line of demarcation begins, the other end pointing northward. It will be seen that it follows very nearly the course of the eastern arm of a channel marked upon some maps as "Clarence Strait." This channel actually terminates at the prescribed latitude of 56 degrees north, which the one now called Portland does not. I say it will be found that the ruler very nearly follows the course of this channel; it does not quite, for it cuts off some outlying edges of the island. It is this fact which furnishes one of the strongest proofs of the correctness of Canada's claim. Taken in connection with a clause of the treaty which provides "que l'île dite Prince of Wales appartiendra toute entière à la Russie," it shows almost conclusively that this strait, and not the one now so designated, was referred to in the treaty by the name of "Portland Channel."

The only possible explanation of this clause is that the line of demarcation as laid down in the treaty, if strictly followed, would leave some part of the island outside of the territory assigned to Russia, and therefore this provision was inserted in order that it might retain the whole. This explanation accords with the hypothesis that the line of demarcation was intended to pass through the strait now called "Clarence," and not the one now called "Portland," for if the line ran through the latter, there would be no need of a special clause to preserve the whole island to Russia, for every part of it would be at least a hundred miles inside the territory assigned to that country.

With regard to the second contention on behalf of Canada, the question turns upon the true meaning of the word "sinuosities" which occurs in the treaty. Does it mean, as is claimed it does by Canada, that the line shall follow the coast proper, or that it shall follow up every narrow inlet, one of which at least runs into the mainland for over a hundred miles, and the upper part of which no more resembles the sea-coast than do the Palisades of the Hudson? This second contention is also strengthened by a clause in the treaty which grants to Great Britain the right to "free navigation" of all these inlets. Of what use would this be did she not own their upper reaches?

As to the first, it is not at all unlikely that the name Portland Channel was anciently applied to a different strait from the one now known by that name. A similar confusion occurred many years ago when, in an attempt to delineate the bound-

ary line between the United States and British possessions, the question arose as to what was the stream referred to in the treaty by the name of St. Croix River. The dispute was settled to the satisfaction of both parties.

Mr. Balch claims, as other writers and speakers have done, that the United States is "entitled by long uninterrupted occupancy to an unbroken strip of territory on the mainland, etc." If my memory serves me aright, a similar claim was set up on behalf of Great Britain in the Venezuela matter, which claim was received with indignant remonstrance in this country as being an instance of British arrogance. America of course is incapable of arrogance. In any case this plea is beside the question, for there happens to be a clause in the treaty made to fit this possibility, which clause expressly denies prescriptive rights to either party.

I am, Mr. Editor, respectfully yours,
ARTHUR JOHNSTON.

SANTA ANA, CAL., January 8, 1902.

Notes.

Mr. John Lane's spring announcements include a two-volume edition of the poems of Arthur Symonds; a limited edition of a three-volume edition of Shelley's poems, uniform with Keats's, printed in the Vale type; 'A Garden in the Suburbs,' by Mrs. Leslie Williams; and 'The Book of Balbs.'

From Doubleday, Page & Co. we are to have 'An Introduction to the Study of English Poetry,' by Prof. Mark H. Liddell; 'The Life of James Madison,' by Gaillard Hunt; and 'A Retrospect of Some Literary Immortals,' by Francis W. Halsey.

A. C. McClurg & Co. will publish 'Ocean to Ocean,' a narrative of a surveying trip across Nicaragua, by Lieut. James G. Walker, U. S. N.; and a new edition of Sheldon's 'Notes on the Nicaragua Canal'; 'Nestlings of Forest and Marsh,' by Mrs. Irene Wheelock; a volume of literary essays by William Morton Payne; 'Letters to an Enthusiast,' by Mary Cowden Clarke; a 'Selection of the World's Greatest Short Stories,' by Sherwin Cody; and 'Right Reading,' a body of counsel selected from ten famous authors.

'The Ancient Catholic Church' (to A. D. 451), by Dr. Robert Rainy, principal of the New College, Edinburgh, and 'Philosophy of Conduct,' by Prof. George T. Ladd of Yale, are in the press of Charles Scribner's Sons.

P. Blakiston's Son & Co., as American agents, announce an important undertaking to cover five years, namely, 'An Atlas of Clinical Medicine, Surgery, and Pathology,' which will be issued in quarterly parts—eight to ten plates at a time—in connection with the regular publications of the New Sydenham Society.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, will issue directly Renan's 'Souvenirs d'Enfance et de Jeunesse,' annotated by Irving Babbitt, primarily for college use, but also to the advantage of the general reader.

Mr. Nathan Haskell Dole is preparing a revised bibliography of the translations or other editions of the Rubā'iyāt of Omar Khayyām, to be included in a new issue of the "Multivarium Edition" published by

L. C. Page & Co. He would be grateful for any information regarding any editions, or magazine articles containing longer or shorter selections from the works of the astronomer poet, whether in English or in foreign languages. Letters should be addressed to him at Jamaica Plain, Mass.

'The Love Poems of Sir John Suckling' is the latest issue in John Lane's "The Lovers' Library," small, companionable volumes tastefully furnished with text printed in one color (here green) and framed in another (here violet), and as daintily bound. We could have desired a modernizing of the punctuation.

Lovers of Dicky Doyle will welcome the reprint of Thackeray's 'The Newcomes' that comes to us from Macmillan with that genial artist's illustrations, both in the letter-press and on the wrapper and title-pages of the 1853 edition. They have a certain affinity with Thackeray's own ingenuous designs, but the author could not have produced the bustings riot on page 745 nor given the same decorative charm to the initial letters which introduce every chapter. With 844 pages the volume is still not unduly bulky, nor is the print difficult to read.

The useful "Künstler-Monographien" (Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lefschetz & Buechner) are increased by a 'Burne-Jones' and a 'Herkomer,' truly a strange pair to be assembled if only by the hazard of a publisher's convenience. These books contain, as is the custom of the series, each more than a hundred illustrations. Ludwig Pietsch celebrates the qualities of Hubert Herkomer in terms of extravagant appreciation; for it is not likely that this versatile artist will ever be mentioned "among the greatest names which have given to the art of the nineteenth century its most illustrious renown." Herr von Schleinitz discusses the works of the late Burne-Jones in a more judicial spirit. Either volume is commendable as a convenient collection of pictures otherwise accessible only in far more expensive form.

The extraordinary alliance which subsists between the republic of France and the empire of Russia naturally raises economic questions of great interest to the French people. Some of these questions are examined by M. J. Machat, in a study entitled 'Le Développement Économique de la Russie' (Paris: Armand Colin). There is no doubt that a considerable amount of foreign capital has lately been invested in Russia; the protective tariff operating as a bounty on such investments. M. Machat determines statistically their extent and their productivity; but his aim is wider than this. He takes, in the first place, a comprehensive view of the resources of Russia and the conditions of its development, and then proceeds to examine specifically the mineral wealth and its exploitation, the agriculture, the manufactures, the transportation, etc. The results are certainly impressive, but we have no confidence in the methods by which they are obtained. Reliance is placed throughout on the figures given in the reports of the various bureaus of the Russian Government. We know enough of the corruption of that Government to make us doubt whether its functionaries are competent to carry out statistical inquiries with scientific accuracy. There may be 33,000,000 horses and 75,000,000 sheep in Russia, but

long series shown are of undoubted interest and value, and the chance to compare them with the pictures for which in some cases they are the notes and suggestions, should prove of immense advantage to the student. They are chiefly in sepia, bistre, and pen-and-ink. Many are sketches of places; of Rome, which he knew so well; of Civita Vecchia and Genoa, which he must have known better than is generally supposed. For at Civita Vecchia, more particularly, the tourist may still see, if he has eyes, the stately piles of architecture, the broad quays, with their curving steps descending to the water's edge, the towers, the tall shipping, the splendor of light in the evening where the channel leads westward, that occur in so many of Claude's pictures of seaports. Other drawings are studies for paintings, always distinguished by the same fine sense of composition and love of graceful form, and sometimes, in arrangement, to the very groups of dancing nymphs, curiously suggestive of Corot. Altogether, I do not remember anywhere a finer exhibition of Claude, and it is fortunate that the Academy, after the horrors it perpetuates in the summer, should, in the winter, give one some reason to be thankful for its existence.

N. N.

Correspondence.

GERMAN AND AMERICAN SCHOOLS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Without wishing in a general way to deny the soundness of Professor Münsterberg's, and his reviewer's, position in regard to American school education, I should like, with your kind permission, to present a few phases of the subject neglect of which might confirm some of our most earnest critics in their, as it seems to me, rather one-sided view.

First of all, as a matter of fact, the elective system has not become an important feature in the schools of this country below the high school. The so-called introduction of the "kindergarten spirit and methods" into the primary grades has occasionally been carried to excess by well-meaning cranks, but its influence upon primary education has been, on the whole, beneficial, in so far as it has helped to discard many useless formalities and mechanical devices in teaching and discipline. In the primary and grammar grades the pupils are held to prescribed courses of study, and in the high schools the selection of studies is not without restriction. It really amounts to a choice among several courses which, *mutatis mutandis*, differ from each other very much like the curricula in the four or five kinds of secondary schools in Germany. It is doubtful whether a complete separation of pupils pursuing different courses, by assigning to each section a special building and a separate corps of teachers, would be advantageous if it were feasible.

In referring to the superior scholarship of German teachers, one should always bear in mind that the vast majority of German children do not enjoy the instruction of such scholars as constitute the teaching force in the gymnasia and the other secondary schools of a high grade. Among

the 85,000 members of the Deutscher Lehrerverein, for example, there are few university graduates. If we could strike the average of scholarship of the teachers of all grades in Germany and compare it with the scholarship of the average American teacher, the advantage would still be on the German side, but there would not appear the wide difference of conditions assumed by Professor Münsterberg. As the American public school combines the various classes of German schools (gymnasium, realschule, etc., down to the volksschule), it is not fair to compare its teaching force with that of the gymnasium alone, which has for generations been enjoying more than any other institution, the fostering care of the Government. It differs from our high school not only by its more extended course of study, but also by its exclusive function as a fitting school for the University.

Like Professor Münsterberg, I had from my early boyhood none but university graduates for instructors. For two years previous to my entering the gymnasium, I, together with one other boy, was taught by a young theologian taken into the family as a private tutor. I never had any fault to find with him on my own score, and it did not occur to me till many years after that the other boy's nervous system and, to some extent, his life were ruined by that man's pedagogy and the mistaken sense of duty of an ambitious, well-meaning father. The theologian endeavored to pound Latin and Greek into the little fellow, and the father upheld him in the attempt. They had none of the indulgence of American fathers and teachers. (The mother and an aunt entreated the conscientious tutor to desist from using the Spanish reed; he promised, but did not keep his promise.) I have since been able to recall a number of similar cases among my comrades at the gymnasium less fortunate than myself. One boy, I remember, whose case was a hopeless one, left the gymnasium early, after a severe tussle with an irascible teacher. He is now Commerzienrat and the head of one of the largest banking firms in Hanover. That my experience in this respect is not exceptional, and that the present conditions in the German schools, though improved, are not altogether changed, I infer from the reports of others and from the manner in which some recent German novelists have treated the school question. On the other hand, I am firmly convinced, from what I have seen of American "schoolmams," that many of them (college graduates, of course, and good scholars in our modest sense of the word) could have taught those boys—who were not dunces—almost anything, not excepting Latin and Greek.

This letter has grown to such length that I must leave it to those of your readers who are interested in the matter to draw their own inferences from the above statements. Allow me only to say, in concluding, that there seems to me good reason for hoping that, as the Germans are gradually transforming their inherited educational system into one of less uniform and rigid requirements, so the people of the United States may evolve out of the as yet somewhat chaotic present conditions a system of popular instruction and education of their own, not yielding in thoroughness and efficiency to any, but

superior to all hitherto known in the fuller recognition of the many-sidedness of human nature and of the multiplicity of ways leading to human virtue and happiness. That Professor Münsterberg is contributing his generous share to the realization of such hope, nobody can effectually gainsay.

A. LOHEMAN.

YESTLAND, MICH., January 19, 1902.

CHINESE EXCLUSION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: One would think, to judge by the newspaper press out here, that the whole Pacific Coast was unanimous in favor of Chinese exclusion, but I can assure you that such is not the case by any means. The fact is, the newspapers are pretty much in the hands of the Typographical Union, and it is as much as their going to press is worth to print anything inimical to the so-called cause of Labor; this so-called cause being nothing else than a concerted effort to raise the price of labor and arbitrarily prevent any one else from cutting it. This is legitimate enough if carried on on legitimate lines, but it shows the assurance of its upholders when, as was actually the case the other day in a conference over a labor dispute, they actually have the face to claim from employers the recognition of unionism to the entire exclusion of non-unionism, on the ground that the union enables them to raise wages!

Sentiment from this quarter, like the sentiment of the consumer of high-protection articles, is not voiced much; nevertheless, there is much unspoken protest which will come to a point some day. The salmon-canneries are at their wits' end to get Chinese labor, and the serious hampering of this industry is imminent. Then, many farmers and land-owners would be glad to clear up and cultivate what is now waste land, but they cannot possibly do so on the basis of the "high standard of living" that is demanded for the whole working-class. Last, but not least, the humble home-keeper lives in daily terror lest she find herself without help of any kind. White help has always been scarce, but now Chinese is just as much so, and unless an average good Chinese cook can get \$35 or so per month, he clears out and goes elsewhere.

What is to be the result it is difficult to see, but there is no question that the Coast is being very much kept back by the scarcity of ordinary labor, and a large-sized vote of thanks will be forthcoming to any agency in the East that will help us to get a fair-sized dose of the "Yellow Peril."

W. J. B.

PORTLAND, OREGON, January 23, 1902.

THE ALASKAN BOUNDARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Is it too much to ask that gentlemen who propose to instruct the public as to the meaning and scope of an international treaty shall first inform themselves as to the history and object of that treaty, and shall quote it without omitting essential qualifying clauses? This question is suggested by certain recent correspondence in your columns, especially a letter signed Arthur Johnson in the issue of January 23. The history of the treaty

of St. Petersburg made in 1825 has been fully set forth by the writer in 1889; and more recently, from a study of the unpublished documents, the Hon. John W. Foster has given an account of the negotiations which led up to it, the object insisted upon by Russia and finally conceded by Great Britain, and other details. This statement has not been and cannot successfully be attacked on the score of accuracy and fairness. To this inquirers should be referred, as neither your space nor my time permits of an extended restatement here.

The so-called "claims of Canada" arose from the fact that the exclusion of Great Britain from the sea between Skagway and Port Simpson, which was the effect of the treaty, has become inconvenient to Canada now that the hinterland of the Northwest Territory is being developed. This led some ill-informed individuals to propose an interpretation of the treaty, aided by some obscurity in its terms, which interpretation, to obtain plausibility, requires (1) the total ignoring of the history of the treaty, written and cartographic, and of the mutual action of the parties to it after it had been signed; (2) that, when the treaty says Portland Channel, it must be assumed not to mean Portland Channel; (3) that when the treaty purports to convey a continuous strip of coast (*lisière de côte*) it must be assumed to mean broken patches of coast interrupted by foreign territory; (4) that when the treaty directs that a line shall follow the sinuosities of the coast (*parallèle aux sinuosités de la côte*) it shall be interpreted as meaning that the line shall be drawn disregarding these sinuosities.

What, we may ask, is the value of any treaty if it be subject to such interpretations? I believe I am correct in stating that the British Government has never officially adopted these propositions, though colonial politicians have used them for their own purposes; and, by constant reiteration, it is probable that many well-meaning but ill-informed persons may finally come to believe, in defiance of the real facts, that there is something reasonable and even equitable in these hypothetic interpretations.

In addition to hypotheses, Mr. Johnson is guilty of direct error in several instances when it would be inferred he had the treaty before him. He says that a clause in the treaty "grants to Great Britain the right to 'free navigation' of all these inlets," and asks, "Of what use would this be did she not own their upper reaches?" The truth is that the treaty grants this privilege for a term of ten years. If she "owned the upper reaches" of the inlets, she could hardly have been excluded from them at any time. With regard to the name Portland Channel, or inlet, its history is short, definite, and precise, and the contrary assumption is utterly baseless. Its location and character were settled by Vancouver, who first mapped it, and have never been in doubt since. Mr. Johnson also states that there is a clause in the treaty "which expressly denies prescriptive rights to either party." This is untrue. The only clause which gives even a color of plausibility to such a statement is one in which the contracting parties agree not to make settlements in each other's territory. In pursuance of this, Russia made a settlement on one of the Gravina islands within a few

miles of Portland Inlet and the British post of Port Simpson, and her right to do so was never questioned. When the Hudson Bay Company tried to erect a post surreptitiously on Wrangell Island, they were ignominiously driven away by Russian naval forces.

But, we are asked, why are you not willing to arbitrate this question if the case is so clear? In the first place, we may well wait until these preposterous hypotheses are officially adopted by Great Britain before we consider arbitration as in question at all. Secondly, arbitration, unfortunately for the world's peace, has not of late upheld the ideal character with which it was formerly endowed. The result of the Delagoa Bay arbitration has been fitly described as an international scandal. The United States, secure in the possession of her rights, may well wait until they are attacked in good faith by more redoubtable adversaries than colonial Juggoes.

WM. H. DALL.

WASHINGTON, January 27, 1902.

PURCHASABLE FAME.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have just seen the representative of a Boston firm engaged in the publication of a so-called history of one of our universities. He wished me, as a graduate of the university in question, to furnish a sketch of my life and my photograph for reproduction, which, he represented, would be highly desirable to the completeness of the work. The history is to be edited by two well-known graduates, and a long list assured me that many prominent graduates have already furnished similar biographical material. It soon turned out, however, that I was to be included in the great work only if I subscribed to it in two volumes, at \$15 each.

The "scheme" is an old one, often used in the publication of county histories and the like, and it can be "worked" anywhere because the essential human vanity is everywhere present. The large scale on which it can be attempted is shown by the announcement of a history of the "One Hundred and Fifty First Families of the United States," admission to which costs fifteen hundred dollars. But it is humiliating to find that such methods can be applied to one of our great universities.

F. C. P.

ITHACA, N. Y., January 25, 1902.

Notes.

Dodd, Mead & Co. will shortly begin publication of a new monthly magazine, the *Bibliographer*, edited by Paul Leicester Ford. It will be freely illustrated with photographic facsimiles of rare books, MSS., etc. During July, August, and September the issue will regularly be suspended. The same publishers announce the second volume of Austin Dobson's "Miscellanies"; a new volume of Essays by Maurice Maeterlinck; the Autobiography of Sir Walter Besant; and "Paul Kever," a tale by Jerome K. Jerome.

Francis P. Harper will publish next month "The American Fur Trade and the Far West: A History of the Pioneer Trading-Posts and Early Fur Companies of the Missouri Valley and the Rocky Mountains,

and of the Overland Commerce with Santa Fé," by Capt. Hiram Martin Chittenden.

Mr. Frank Stockton's new novel, in the press of D. Appleton & Co., is entitled "Kate Bonnet: The Romance of a Pirate's Daughter."

Ginn & Co. will soon issue "Analytical Psychology," by Prof. Lightner Witmer, and "Northern Europe," in the *Youth's Companion* series.

"Melomania," by James Huneker, and Paulsen's "Immanuel Kant, his Life and Doctrine," translated by G. E. Creighton and Albert Lefevre, are promised by Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Dodge Publishing Co., No. 40 West Thirteenth Street, have nearly ready "Favorite Songs of Love," and "For Every Music Lover, or How to Know Music," by Aubertine Woodward Moore.

It is enough to say of "Who's Who for 1902" (Macmillan) that it is more inclusive of men and women of the time by 200 pages than last year's issue—the present being the fifty-fourth. As is well known, this most convenient directory no longer confines itself to British or Anglo-Saxon personages, but has a universal outlook. Its main value, however, is still British above all. In the American portion we might have expected to find our two governors of dependencies, Gen. Leonard Wood and Gov. Taft.

Mrs. Ady's "Sacharissa" has needed less than a decade to pass from its second to a third edition (E. P. Dutton & Co.). No revision has apparently been found necessary, and we shall add nothing to our comments on this work offered in 1894. It is handsomely made, and has four historic portraits, beginning with Dorothy Sidney herself, and ending with Algernon Sidney.

Extremely attractive is the little two-volume edition of Bunyan's "Pilgrim's Progress" bearing George Newnes's London imprint (New York: Scribners). The print is admirably clear, the binding in pliant leather; and Mr. Edmund J. Sullivan's full-page pen designs are often ornamental and generally effective.

In the pocket "Temple Classics" of Dent-Macmillan we have now Perrault's "Tales of Passed Times," with twelve illustrations by Charles Robinson, one in color. The series has been eked out from the Prince de Beaumont and from Mme. d'Aulnoy.

Dr. Edward Everett Hale's "In His Name" has been translated into French by Mary Prince Sauveur, with the author's sanction (New York: William R. Jenkins), and is offered as a text-book for schools.

Sir Richard Burton might well have prayed to be delivered from his friends. The process of publishing the rakings of his desk-drawers goes merrily on; it is called showing respect to his memory, and bringing home to his countrymen what they have lost in him. His memory stands fast, and will stand fast, and his work was well done when he died. But the "literary executors" continue their antics and refuse to let his ashes rest. If the custom spreads, the eighteenth-century Curll will have found successors, and his new terror added to death will be revived. This last installment, "Wanderings in Three Continents," edited by W. H. Wilkins (Dodd, Mead & Co.), consists of some eight lectures and essays, descriptive, in a more or less popu-

ones?" "Fifteen or sixteen." "That's a great many," says Martin." Good plays! there is the secret. Good actors will always be found, I venture to say, in France, which seems to have a peculiar genius in this respect, owing to centuries of peculiar culture. It is impossible not to be struck by the fact that in the meanest little theatres or even music-halls of the capital, and even of the large cities of France, you always discover some actor or actress with a special gift for acting. There is a whole populace of "cabotins," of both sexes, always looking for employment, always trying to get an engagement. It would be interesting, and sometimes very painful, to describe the career of so many men and women drawn by an irresistible calling to the hazardous life of the theatre. We know how difficult were the beginnings of some—of Rachel, for instance, the most illustrious of all; but nothing can deter many thousands, I may say, from the attraction of the stage. The demand for actors will always be answered by a supply. The same, alas, cannot be said of the demand for really good plays.

Correspondence.

CUBA AND IRELAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While our statesmen at Washington are debating what to do with Cuba, it will not be inopportune to recall a few well-known facts from the history of another island dependency.

Two centuries or more ago, Ireland, devastated by famine and war, lay at the mercy of England. The little energy that remained in her was turned to cattle-raising, which was as well suited to her by nature as sugar-raising to Cuba. The English landowners took alarm, and, by the 18 Charles II., c. 2, prohibited the importation of Irish cattle into England. This destroyed the rising trade. Ireland then turned to wool; but, by the 10 and 11 Gul. III., c. 10, this attempt was crushed by a still more sweeping prohibition. Smuggling began, and wool was carried to the manufacturers in France. Finally, the Irish turned again to their ancient manufacture of linen; but in vain, for the country had been crushed. Her poverty was irremediable and her despair final. By these measures England destroyed a possible market, stimulated her rivals, strengthened her enemies, blasted the hopes of a nation, and sowed the seeds of hate around the world.

For those who rely on the adequacy of free institutions, it is well to remember, also, that the commercial imperialism of the Whig ascendancy was more grinding upon the colonies of England than the more generous absolutism of the Stuarts.

Yours truly, WILLIAM P. GEST.

MERION, PA., January 30, 1902

THE BEET-SUGAR CASE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The controversy between Cuban and domestic sugar being now at its height, it is curious to note the actual condition of public opinion throughout the nation. It must be admitted that the preponderance of opinion expressed in the leading journals can hardly be claimed as in favor of

the just demands of domestic sugar-producers. There are several grave and obvious errors in the argument that constitutes the Cuban case, and the most important reasons for the establishment of beet sugar are not understood and are not presented—and perhaps never will be. One error, that of extravagant profits continuously enjoyed by cold-blooded producers of beet sugar, has now become less militant. The popular idea as to these profits and the cost of domestic sugar was an error, and could have been disproved by an examination of books; but it had great weight, and perhaps has now.

The claim is made every day that Cuban sugar will destroy no industry, and it is assumed that domestic sugar-producers in this country have a proposition of fixed and reliable factors, which enable us to say whether or not we can make money as the seasons roll along with a precision that is not possible to the foresight of mortal man. Actually, there is not one single critic of the position taken by domestic sugar-producers who is qualified to criticize their acts, and who would not in the same circumstances take exactly the same position that these producers do.

It is not true that the cost of sugar has admitted of extravagant profits, but, on the contrary, very little money has been recovered by investors in beet sugar in the way of dividends. If any profits have been made, they have been put back into the plant. The prospectus printed in newspapers all over the land, and scattered broadcast by the Sugar Trust, has conveyed an impression quite incorrect, and the result is simply a great mistake. Qualifying conditions, such as droughts, floods, and other misfortunes, have made the actual conglomerate experience of beet sugar widely diverse from the cheerful results indicated. Beet-sugar people have undertaken a task which involves a change in the fundamental conditions of agriculture, and the time and labor required have been underestimated in such degree as to make any prospectus appear absurd when checked up with actual results.

In spite of the phrase "No industry destroyed," the insincere motto of the Trust, a victory for Cuba means an early extinction of all domestic sugar, either in Louisiana or the North. A victory for domestic sugar means the gradual exclusion of foreign sugar till it forms an insignificant fraction of our consumption. The two are antagonistic, and one or the other must prevail. If we are beaten, the nation loses for ever its opportunity to secure in rural districts which cannot get other industrial life the most beneficent and valuable factor that we may ever know for education, improvement of agriculture, some degree of urban civilization, and fixing on the soil the owner who tills his own land. If we could now see clearly what beet sugar may accomplish, there would be no further discussion, and only our imperfect view of the future gives the Cuban argument any standing whatever. We have nothing but good will for the people of Cuba, and are willing that our Government shall make them any allowance necessary for their support; but we are not willing to build up their sugar industry at the cost of our own.

Yours truly, R. M. ALLEN.

AMES, NEBRASKA, January 27, 1902.

OUR NEW BELONGINGS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is interesting to note the variety of terms employed in current newspaper and magazine literature to designate the territory acquired by the United States through the Spanish war. Thus, the phrases "our new possessions," "our island empire," "our new territories," "our dependencies," "our colonies," and the like, are all in every-day use. None of these names is entirely satisfactory. For instance, *colonies* smacks too much of Imperialism, *dependencies* appears out of harmony with republican ideas, and so on through the list. Even the Government term, "our insular possessions," lacks greatly in precision, as we have one insular possession no farther away than across the East River.

In view of this, a specific name is desirable to describe the Philippines and Porto Rico, and such a term seems to have been provided for us by Judge Brown in the Supreme Court decision. The distinction between the different sections of the country he makes to hinge upon the clause "territory appurtenant and belonging to" the United States. Why not, then, assign to the word "appurtenances" of the United States the technical meaning intended?

Yours very truly, JOS. V. COLLINS.

217 DIVISION ST., STEVENS POINT, WIS.,
January 28, 1902.

CANADA AND ALASKA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The present contention of Canada about the Alaskan frontier, which she brought up at the Quebec Conference in 1898, is that she is entitled to many outlets upon tide-water above fifty-four degrees forty minutes north latitude; and the possession of even only one such outlet on the Lynn Canal would serve her purposes admirably well. The United States, on the other hand, as Russia before them, have always maintained that (by Articles iii. and iv. of the Anglo-Russian Treaty of 1825), no matter whether the frontier pass over a certain mountain top or through a given gorge, yet it is at all points far enough inland to entirely cut off the British empire from all contact with tide-water above the Portland Canal, which debouches into the ocean at fifty-four degrees forty minutes. And this view of the United States has been supported in the past, and not so long ago either, by both the British and the Canadian Governments.

In the early course of the negotiations between Russia and England in the years 1822 and 1824, Sir Charles Bagot fought strenuously to keep open for Britain an outlet upon tide-water as far up above fifty-four degrees forty minutes as possible. But to all his propositions, including his last one that the frontier should pass from the southern extremity of Prince of Wales Island and up through Clarence Straits, which wash the eastern shore of Prince of Wales Island, the Russians would not agree. And finally England, represented by Stratford Canning, yielded the point and agreed on the Portland Canal as a boundary. As to what sinuosity Count Nesselrode, M. de Polignac, and Stratford Canning meant by the Portland Canal, when they negotiated and concluded the treaty of 1825, may be seen by looking at Vancouver's chart, upon

which is marked clearly "Portland Canal." And the map of the "Northwestern Part of the Dominion of Canada," published by the Surveyor-General at Ottawa, in 1898, agrees with Vancouver and the United States as to where is the "Portland Canal."

In 1872 Sir Edward Thornton, acting on his instructions from the British Foreign Office, which was serving as the intermediary for the Government of Canada, proposed to Secretary Hamilton Fish the advisability of having a survey made of the territory through which the boundary ran, so that the frontier could be located exactly, and Mr. Fish thought well of the idea and said that he would urge Congress to provide funds for such a survey. At that time no mention was made of Canada's present claim, that she is entitled to the upper part of many or all of the fiords or sinuosities that cut into the mainland above fifty-four degrees forty minutes. On the contrary, the Surveyor-General of Canada, J. S. Dennis, in a written communication in 1874 to the Minister of the Interior of the Dominion, gave his opinion that it would be sufficient at that time to determine exactly the points at which the frontier crosses the "Rivers Skoot, Stakeen, Taku, Isileat, and Chilkahit." He added further: "The United States surveys of the coast could be advantageously used to locate the coast line in deciding the mouths of the rivers in question, as points from whence the necessary triangulation surveys should commence in order to determine the ten marine leagues back." In addition, a United States Coast Survey map, certified to "January 16, 1878," by Surveyor-General Dennis, was published in connection with this letter, with the boundary line crossing the Skoot, Stickine, and Taku Rivers, ten leagues back from the coast.

In 1877 the Canadian Government, through the intermedium of the British Foreign Office, formally recognized that the *lisière* of Alaska shut off Canadian territory from access to salt water. The previous year, while taking a prisoner named Peter Martin, who was condemned in the Cassiar District of British Columbia for some act committed in Canadian territory, from the place where he was to be imprisoned, Canadian constables crossed the Stickine River. They encamped with Martin at a point some thirteen miles up the river from its mouth. There Martin attempted unsuccessfully to escape, and made an assault on an officer. Upon his arrival at Victoria, the capital of British Columbia, he was tried and convicted for his attempted escape and attack upon the constable; and the court sentenced him. Our Secretary of State, Hamilton Fish, protested vigorously against this infringement of the territorial sovereignty of the United States in the Territory of Alaska. After an investigation into the facts of the case, the Dominion Government acknowledged the justness of Secretary Fish's protest by "setting Peter Martin at liberty without further delay"; and thus recognized that the Canadian constables who had Martin in their charge when they encamped on the Stickine thirteen miles up from the mouth of the river, were on United States soil, and so that Canada's jurisdiction in that region did not extend to tide-water.

A striking truth of what the best official geographers of the British Government

thought was the true boundary, is "Admiralty Chart No. 787" of the British Admiralty, that gives the northwest coast of America from "Cape Corrientes, Mexico, to Kadiak Island." This was prepared in 1876 by F. J. Evans, R. N., published in 1877, and corrected up to April, 1898, only a few months before the opening of the Quebec Conference. On this chart of the British Admiralty, the frontier of the United States descends the one hundred and forty-first degree of longitude west from Greenwich and then, advancing on the Continent, but passing around the sinuosities of the coast so as to give a continuous *lisière* of territory cutting off the Dominion of Canada from all contact with any of the fiords or sinuosities that bulge into the continent between Mount Saint Elias and the Portland Canal, the frontier is drawn to the head of the Portland Canal at about fifty-six degrees, and then down that sinuosity, striking Iuxon's Entrance at fifty-four degrees forty minutes. Thus the British Admiralty itself upholds the territorial claims held and maintained by both the Russian and the United States Governments.

It is one thing to ask the United States to agree, as Mr. Fish was willing to do in 1872, to have a joint survey to examine the country in the interior in order to locate exactly where the frontier runs. But it is quite another thing to ask the United States to submit to arbitration their right to all the sinuosities of the coast in their *entirety* above fifty-four degrees forty minutes, and the unbroken strip of territory round these sinuosities, which Great Britain recognized, from 1825 to 1867, as a part of Russia, and, since then, until recently, as a part of the United States. The more the subject is examined, the more evident does it become that there is nothing in the proposition of Canada and England which the United States should refer to arbitration.

T. W. BALCH.

PHILADELPHIA, January 27, 1902.

[The argument must close here.—ED. NATION.]

UNIFORM MUNICIPAL ACCOUNTING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Our City Comptroller, Hon. James H. Smith, has added Baltimore to the list of cities that have taken up the important subject of uniform municipal accounting. In his report, just published, there is a schedule of the receipts and expenditures of the city arranged according to the scheme suggested by the National Municipal League. This scheme distributes the receipts and expenditures of the municipality under the general heads of ordinary and extraordinary. In the case of receipts, the ordinary embrace income from taxes, licenses, and so on; the extraordinary, income from sales of property, issuing of city bonds, and the like. Ordinary expenditures embrace what are usually termed operating or maintenance expenses. Extraordinary expenditures are made for purchases of property, erection of public buildings, redemption of the public debt, and so on. It is the request of the National Municipal League that all city comptrollers and auditors will, as an appendix to their report, state the receipts and expenses of their respective municipalities according to the scheme suggested by the League, so

that by actual experience and a comparison of results a uniform schedule may be adopted which will commend itself for use in all municipal reports.

In order not to trespass too much upon your space with an elaborate explanation, it is proper to add that all who may be interested in this important branch of municipal government may obtain information in detail from the Secretary of the National Municipal League, Mr. Clinton Rogers Woodruff, North American Building, Philadelphia. JOHN H. BLACKLOCK.

235 EQUILABLE BUILDING, BALTIMORE.
January 27, 1902.

AN EARLY ALLUSION TO OMAR KHAYYAM

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: All lovers of Omar Khayyam know that his early fame in the West rested on his ability as an astronomer rather than on those wonderful quatrains which breathe the *Wellschmerz* of our modern age. The burden of the song of the "tent-maker," as FitzGerald has given it to us, has become part and parcel of our literature. It becomes of interest, then, to trace the European knowledge of Omar as far back as possible. FitzGerald's teacher, Prof. E. B. Cowell of Cambridge, supposed that the earliest reference to our poet in the West occurred in the well-known passage in Thomas Hyde's 'Historia Religionis Veterum Persarum,' pages 498-500 of the first edition (Oxford, 1700). Here almost certainly is the first Occidental publication of any of his quatrains, the one which FitzGerald rendered,

"O Thou who burn'st in Heart for those who burn."

There is, however, at least one allusion to the poet which antedates the passage in Hyde by more than a century. Here, too, the reference is primarily to the astronomer, but his poetic talent is altogether unnoticed. The ancient calendar of the Persians had fallen behind on account of faulty intercalation, and a reform was necessary, as was to be the case with the Gregorian reckoning in Europe five centuries later. Accordingly, the old friend of Omar, the Sultan Alp Arslan, summoned to his assistance the eight most eminent astronomers of Persia, including the poet himself. Among Al-Khayyami's associates were two whose names are familiar to all students of the Orient, Avicenna, the Arabic Aristotelian philosopher, and the chronologist and historian of India, Al-Biruni. The allusion to the poet to which reference is here made is found in the work of the great Dutch scholar, Joseph Scaliger, 'De Emendatione Temporum,' page 304 of the Geneva edition of 1629 (first edition, Basel, 1593), and runs as follows in text and translation:

"In illa autem forma vaga anni Iezdeginidici difficile est id assequi, tam propter neglectum in anno Persico quadrantem, quam propter praegressionem aequinoctiorum; ob eam rem, Imperator Corasan, sine Mesopotamia, convocatis peritisimis astrologiae viris curant non anni instituerunt delegavit. Imperatoris, qui id edixit et sauxit, nomen est, Abu Arslan Elseleuuki Elhavvaraz, Muschabi Sultan Corasan. Convenerunt ad edictum Regium octo praestantissimi viri, Omar Elhajamu, Abu Hali, Hasan filius Haimhan, Elbiruni, Abu Elvapha, Elbuzgiani, Ellukari, Iudex iurisdictionis Elphakati, et Aben Sina, quem vulgo Anisenam vocant. Erat annus Christi Dionysianus 1079."

askance at his doctrines and favored the candidacy of another. While a business man of excellent reputation, Mr. Foss was not well enough known to have been nominated in spite of these influences but for his platform. Under these circumstances, it seems fair to assume that the verdict of the Eleventh Congressional District of Massachusetts is in favor of revising the tariff along certain lines. There is nothing surprising in this, but, together with the other signs of the times, it has its significance.

Some important hints were thrown out by Mr. A. B. Hepburn in his recent address to the Bankers' Association of Pennsylvania, touching the defects of our currency system. He gave an account of the German system of "emergency circulation," by means of which the banks are allowed to issue notes in excess of ordinary requirements on condition of paying a tax at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum on the excess. Mr. Hepburn thought that it would be safe to allow national banks, in emergencies, of the gravity of which the Secretary of the Treasury should be the judge, to issue notes not exceeding in amount one-half of their capital stock, on condition of paying a tax of 6 per cent. per annum on such circulation. It was his opinion that such issues not only would be safe, but would relieve the banks of the necessity of issuing Clearing-house loan certificates in times of panic. The latter system, although, under our present methods, indispensable at times, tends to weaken confidence in the banks which resort to it. It should, therefore, be superseded by a better method of meeting such emergencies. Mr. Hepburn called attention to the fact that ordinarily banks in Germany are allowed to count the notes of other specie-paying banks as a part of their cash reserve against circulating notes, but he did not recommend that they be used as reserve against deposits here. On the contrary, he said:

"I cannot persuade myself that a bank-note, as that term is generally understood, ought ever to be counted as reserve; but our national banknotes, secured as they are, are as good for reserve or for any other purpose as any obligation in this country can be."

That is quite true, but no "obligation" should ever be counted as a bank reserve, except the demand obligations of the Government, and the latter should be dispensed with as soon as possible. Under an ideal system, the bank reserves would consist only of gold coin and bullion.

What constitutes proper supervision of life-insurance companies was ably set forth in the remarks of John A. McCall before the Insurance officials of twenty-four different States, in session at Columbus, O., last week. Mr. McCall

contended that the motive for most of the restrictions was a legitimate desire on the part of the State to protect the public from irresponsible concerns which wrought such havoc in this country twenty years ago. This point Mr. McCall was peculiarly well qualified to bring out, since the crusade inaugurated against fraudulent insurance companies during his administration as head of the New York Insurance Department was of incalculable advantage to policy-holders of this State. Not satisfied with sending the chief impostors to State prison, Mr. McCall promulgated a series of rules governing the regulation of insurance companies that have since formed the basis for the most intelligent and rigorous supervision in force anywhere. While Massachusetts and New York have usually taken the lead in such reforms, most of the important States have corrected the old abuses which sprang from an improper conception of the real function of such companies. Chief among these reforms has been the abandonment of the movement against corporations of foreign countries doing business in certain Western States. This warfare was waged for years in the form of discriminating taxation, until the business public became aroused by the folly of restricting the supply of available insurance by forcing some of the strongest underwriting corporations out of the field. Mr. McCall's utterances, on the whole, form a valuable contribution to the literature of State insurance supervision. They should exert an important influence in correcting the abuses of a necessarily complicated system.

Professor Cattell of Columbia University points out, in *Science*, certain difficulties in the way of administering the funds of the Carnegie Institution, and makes some interesting, practical suggestions. He discerns, in the plan of subsidizing individual investigators or departments of research in the present universities, the danger that the university may reduce correspondingly the funds allotted to these purposes, while private givers will be inclined to withdraw their support. A similar disadvantage accompanies the purchase of existing laboratories or experiment stations. In the case of the Marine Biological Laboratory at Wood's Hole, which the Carnegie Institution is said to have marked for its own, the change of ownership would reduce greatly and perhaps cut off the stated contributions which that admirable institution receives from scores of colleges. It would also nullify whatever prospective benefactions the laboratory may have in store. Accordingly, Professor Cattell lays down the general principle, "Should the Carnegie Institution make an appropriation on condition that it be duplicated locally,

its funds would be spent to advantage." This, he it observed, is both good sense and sound Carnegie doctrine.

Sir Michael Hicks-Beach's criticism of the Balfour Ministry is worth more to the Liberals than the winning of a handful of by-elections. The late Chancellor of the Exchequer practically accuses the Government of inefficiency in the War Office and recklessness in the Treasury. It is hard to see how the condemnation of a "khaki" Ministry could be more complete. In other directions also the Government has aroused deep discontent. If the Education Bill began a year ago as a colossal bore, it has become a political issue of the first magnitude. By an inconsiderate application of the Crimes Act in Ireland Mr. Balfour has presumably alienated his Nationalist supporters of the bill, while, if he pushes it through by a nominal majority, its passage will be the signal for thousands of Nonconformists and Liberals to refuse to pay the rates. No Ministry could survive in the face of wholesale arrests of usually law-abiding citizens who had chosen to enter so drastic a protest against Episcopal control of the public schools. Mr. Balfour and others have been deploring the lack of a vigorous opposition. It looks as though the Irish question and the school question would quickly supply this need. In spite of his large paper majority, the Premier will reënter the Commons with prestige so greatly diminished that it is hard to see how an appeal to the country can be long deferred.

Germany is reaping the full fruits of "protection" in the high price and absolute scarcity of meat. The Government insists on keeping the food tariff—particularly that on animal products—at a point which will permit the negotiation of pending reciprocity treaties. The Agrarians insist upon the original excessive schedules of the new tariff bill. The Government can better afford to be beaten on the bill than to yield, and the Agrarians will not give way; so the deadlock is complete. But it appears that the protest of a country cruelly mulcted for the benefit of the farming class is making itself heard. There are indications that the Agrarians are losing strength, and there is some attempt to unite the Liberal and Social-Democratic parties into a genuine Left. Such a fusion of the liberal forces in Germany is most devoutly to be desired. Once effected, stranger things might happen than that the Government should seek support from the Left, thus repeating more sensationally in an Empire the recent parliamentary history of the Republic of France and the Kingdom of Italy, in both of which the Government has ruled with the aid of the Socialists.

COAL-MINING BY RECEIVERS.

"The Coal Mines and the Public" is the title of a pamphlet of sixty-three pages, in which the writer, Mr. Heman W. Chaplin, seeks to show how the mining of anthracite coal may be resumed by judicial process. A suit has already been instituted in Boston for a receivership of the principal coal-carrying and coal-mining companies, in order to accomplish this end.

Mr. Chaplin sets out with the proposition that real estate is never held by a private owner by an absolute title, but is subject to the right of the public, which may either restrict the use of it or require from the owner affirmative action in respect of it. About one-half of his argument rests upon the rulings of the Supreme Court of the United States in the Munn case, where the owners of a grain elevator in Chicago were required to submit to a law passed by the Legislature of Illinois which required all such elevators to conduct their business in a certain way and to take out licenses which should be revocable for misconduct, and which fixed a maximum sum for the storage and handling of grain. The owners of the elevator, which had been built and put in operation before the passage of the law, refused to comply with it. They were prosecuted, convicted and fined. They took an appeal, but the judgment of the lower court was sustained, both in the Supreme Court of Illinois and in that of the United States. There are probably some lawyers who still think that the decision in the Munn case is unsound, but there are none who expect ever to see it reversed.

Mr. Chaplin seeks to fit this decision upon the corpus of the coal-carrying and coal-mining companies of Pennsylvania. The offence for which Munn was punished was that of disobeying a statute which the State of Illinois was competent to pass. There is no statute of Pennsylvania requiring a railroad to carry coal which has not been offered to it. If there is one which requires a mining company to mine coal at all, we have never heard of it. Nor do we believe that a law will ever be passed requiring an owner of coal property to mine more coal than he can. Certainly no court will ever seek to compel him to do so in the absence of such a statute. The law does not require impossibilities. The decision in the Munn case does not fit the *corpus delicti*. Whether the mine owners are to blame or not, they are not blamable in that way. Therefore, the first half of Mr. Chaplin's argument is false of the mark.

If the second half has any better foundation than the first, it tells against the striking miners rather than against the mine owners. "Where a trust right in the real estate of another exists," he says, "a court of equity, in the absence of a statute, can enforce that right." No

such trust right in coal lands having been established or being fairly inferred from the Munn elevator case, there is nothing for a court of equity to do, adversely to the possessors of the legal title. Then Mr. Chaplin goes on to say:

"Where a claimant's right is a right to active operations, a court of equity will, where it is necessary, protect him in the exercise of his right by injunction against interference with him, or will, if more convenient, exercise the right in his behalf by appointing a receiver of the property and putting such receiver in charge of the property and having him operate it for the benefit of all concerned."

The first clause above quoted describes the mine owner exactly. He is the claimant who has a right to active operations and to protection in carrying them on. He is the one who may properly ask for an injunction against interference. If a receivership is needed in the anthracite region, it is needed as a shield and guard against lawless individuals and mobs who are stopping trains, dynamiting railroad bridges, and murdering men who are trying to earn an honest living as miners and to relieve society from the terror of a coal famine on the eve of winter. Mr. Chaplin apparently would put the coal carriers and operators in the hands of a receiver in order to coerce them; but if this is a case for coercion it should be applied to the neck of the other party.

An important witness to this purport is Bishop Talbot of the Episcopal Church of central Pennsylvania, whose diocese embraces the entire anthracite region, and who feels moved by the gravity of the situation to issue a signed statement. Although his sympathies are strongly enlisted for the miners and their families, he says that the strikers went out when no real grievances existed which could not have been peaceably adjusted. "It is now well known," he adds, "and is even expressed by their leaders, that the *crux* of the whole matter is the recognition of the organization known as the Miners' Union." This is exactly what Mr. Hewitt said and what Mr. Mitchell denied when, referring to Mr. Hewitt's statement, he said there had been "no formal demand" for recognition; by which he wished the public to understand that that was not one of the issues at stake. Now Bishop Talbot says that it is the *crux* of the whole matter, and we believe him. We agree with him also that to accede to this demand is to pass the ownership of the property over to the miners' organization. The power to dictate who shall work in the mines includes everything else. Bishop Talbot passes judgment upon Mitchell himself in his concluding sentence, where he says that the miner "has been woefully duped and unwittingly sacrificed to the overweening and selfish ambitions of his imaginary friends."

This statement helps us to form an opinion of the value of a receivership of the coal-carrying and coal-mining

companies by an order of court. Such an order would put upon the judge granting it the immediate responsibility for conducting a business of infinite detail and complexity, which has crushed and disabled the most experienced men in the world in times past, and has gone more than once through bankruptcy. In the event of a receivership the public would at once look to the judge to supply them with coal "at a reasonable price" this is one of the demands most strongly insisted upon by Mr. Chaplin. Of course, this could not be done for a long time to come—probably never under that system of management. But the miners would construe the receivership as a decision of all disputed points in their favor, and would strike against the receiver if they were not granted. That way of settling the difficulty is No Thoroughfare. The right way to begin is by restoring the reign of law in the coal region, and this, Bishop Talbot says, should be done in twenty-four hours.

THE ALASKA BOUNDARY.

A process of myth-making by reiteration has for several years been in progress in Canada regarding the question of the Alaskan boundary, and bids fair to produce, sooner or later, serious consequences. The subject is one on which very few persons are well informed; it is difficult to obtain accurate information about it, and partisan spirit may expend itself on it under the mask of patriotism with little fear of discovery. It is unquestionable that the public in Canada, including many of the more intelligent and influential classes, has been for several years assiduously supplied with articles on the boundary which, notwithstanding their essential falsity, have created a body of opinion with which, mistaken as it is, it will be difficult to deal. A somewhat similar state of mind, exhibited by a less well-informed body of Americans, was noticeable in southeastern Alaska in 1899, when the temporary boundaries of the *modus vivendi* were laid out near the head of Lynn Canal. Such subjects offer gold mines for the sensational press in either country, and so the evil grows. On the whole, the press of the United States has been indifferent, occupied with more timely matters, and the reiteration of the Canadian myth across the border has passed unheeded here. Congress, also, in ignoring for session after session the settlement of a question which was bound to produce international irritation as the Alaskan country became better populated, has incurred a grave responsibility. Our Canadian cousins have a just right to complain of this, however wrong they may be in some other matters.

An excellent example of the literature above alluded to is a recent publication,

in the *Canadian Law Review* for September, of an article by Thomas Hodgins, K.C., of Toronto, which is also printed in the *Contemporary Review*. It is well written, gives evidence of much familiarity with international law, and of just enough acquaintance with the facts not to disturb the flow of a grave and apparently weighty argument. Regarded as the effort of counsel to represent the case of his client, it is admirable, and, with the intelligent public who cannot hear the argument for the other side, it will necessarily be influential. Believing that in the interests of truth, of the international relations of the two countries, and of the speedy settlement of this vexed question, it is eminently desirable that both sides should be heard, we propose to point out certain facts which Mr. Hodgins passes without mention; to challenge certain assumptions on which his whole argument rests, and which we believe to be erroneous; and to say a few words on the subject of arbitration, with which the latter part of his article deals.

When the treaty of 1825 was made between Russia and Great Britain (of which our treaty of 1867 is a replica in its essentials) the Russian-American Company maintained a fishery for sea-otters in the archipelago of southeastern Alaska which was the chief source of the Company's revenue. Members of the Imperial family and their court were among the stockholders. The Hudson Bay Company at that time had no posts west of the Rocky Mountains and north of the southern boundary of Alaska. The country was regarded as a worthless wilderness, valuable only for fur animals. The only official maps of the region were those of Vancouver, which represented a non-existent solitary chain of mountains extending continuously in a general parallelism with the continental coast. This was the map-maker's conventional sign for a mountainous country, but the diplomats took it for an actual range, as appears in the British instructions cited by Mr. Hodgins among the preliminaries to the treaty. This hypothetical range was taken to carry the boundary line in the treaty as agreed upon, except that, when its summit proved to be more than ten marine leagues from the coast, the boundary should be formed by a line parallel to the coast and ten marine leagues therefrom.

The Russian Company and the court desired to safeguard their sea-otters from the Hudson Bay Company, which was engaged in extending its trading posts into the interior; and, while they were willing to permit navigation of the rivers by which the interior could be reached, they determined to make themselves secure against trading posts on the coast by which the sea-otter trade of Russia might be depleted. This they effected by obtaining a continuous strip of coast (*lisière*) which they held for

years, later leased for a time to the Hudson Bay Company, and finally sold to the United States. Great Britain had the free navigation of the rivers (*fleuves*, which Mr. Hodgins mistranslates "waters"), and for a period of ten years was also allowed to navigate the inlets. The limitation of time in the latter case disposes at once and for ever of the lengthy arguments about territorial waters to which Mr. Hodgins and other Canadian advocates devote so much space. All the argument about "ocean" and "mer," and territorial jurisdiction, and boundary lines skipping across navigable arms of the sea, sinks into ineptitude when confronted with the fact that Great Britain accepted a limitation of the right of navigation of the inlets to ten years, and the Hudson Bay Company afterwards paid an annual rent for many years for the privilege. These facts are sedulously ignored and left unmentioned by Mr. Hodgins and other Canadian writers, who do not even quote the part of the treaty in which the first is set forth.

In the absence of a definite "summit of the mountains," the United States has a right to fall back on the "ten marine-league" line as a boundary. In the geographical uncertainty which obscured the characteristics of the *lisière* until very recent surveys, the line was drawn on our charts at ten marine leagues from the sea. At only one known place in Alaska is there a definite "summit" which may be utilized in the sense of the treaty, and that is at the head of Lynn Canal. Here the summit of the White and other passes clearly should be regarded as so defined, and has been adopted in the line laid down in 1899 as a *modus vivendi*. Mr. Hodgins is therefore mistaken when, in this place, he draws from an old chart the ten marine-league line and states that here it is "claimed by the United States." That expression should be used only when a diplomatic claim to that effect has been made, and none has been made of the sort stated. To charge the United States or Canada with claiming all the absurdities which have appeared on maps in either country, is fair to neither.

Mr. Hodgins makes a strong appeal for arbitration of the question and it is certain that, if the case should be determined on its merits, as in law courts, this would be best for the interests of both parties. Certain phases of the case are adapted for arbitration, others are not. Unfortunately for international peace, in three very important recent arbitrations the arbitrators have seemed to regard themselves as partisans, and not impartial judges; and absolute failure of the proceedings has been averted only by a decision which was privately, if not publicly, admitted to be not based on the merits of the case, but merely a compromise to avoid war, in which the weaker party was given the least that

would shut its mouth. In one case, that of the Delagoa Bay arbitration, it is acknowledged that the result was a scandalous mis-carriage of justice, where the outraged plaintiffs submitted on the principle that a crust is better than nothing.

The United States will not submit the Alaskan boundary to such a court. When a little experience has been had of the workings of the Hague Tribunal, it may prove that justice, and not political influence, will be the guide of that body. An international supreme court is sadly needed, and this one, as yet untried in any really momentous question, may fill the rôle. If so, the boundary question may be carried there with general approval. Until then a masterly inactivity may be more prudent. At any rate, some means should be taken of informing the general public of the ascertained facts without exception; a knowledge of which in this, as in many other cases, would do much to abate the bitterness of argument.

THE NEW MEDICAL EDUCATION.

If any department of applied science has in recent years appeared to show rapid and healthy growth, it is the department of medicine. The triumphs of medical experts, particularly in such lines as surgery, bacteriology, and sanitary science, are familiar wonders, while the gifts of large endowments for such institutions as the Harvard Medical School and the Johns Hopkins Hospital have seemed to stamp with approval both the methods and the results of modern medical work. It is somewhat startling, therefore, to find Professor Barker, head of the department of anatomy in the University of Chicago, seriously questioning both the wisdom and the propriety of much of the prevailing course of medical instruction, and urging instead the adoption of methods which will doubtless seem to many members of the profession not only revolutionary, but chimerical. Professor Barker's standing, however, as one of the most eminent American anatomists entitles his opinions to great respect, and his paper on "Medicine and the Universities," reprinted in pamphlet form, with some changes, from a recent issue of *American Medicine*, has already begun to provoke discussion.

The history of medical education in this country shows several types of school. The first and the earliest in point of time, what Professor Barker calls the "proprietary" medical school. This was a school founded, usually, by a group of medical men for the double purpose of educating physicians and improving their own professional standing. The curriculum, limited at first to a single course of lectures, gradually expanded, until now, in most schools, it covers four years. For financial sup-

port, dependence was had on the fees of students, the surplus being divided among the instructors at the end of the term, while professional connection with the school came to have so great financial value that practitioners were glad not only to obtain appointments to which no compensation was attached, but even to pay a large price for the sake of getting them. For clinical opportunities, resort was had to the charity hospitals and such minor clinics as the resources of the school allowed to be held.

The growth of laboratory methods of instruction in science, however, forced the proprietary schools to a change of method. The great cost of laboratory work in physiology, histology, pathology, and bacteriology could not be met from fees, nor could the new instruction itself be given with the comparatively small expenditure of time required under the old system. The larger number of schools, accordingly, have formed connections more or less close with neighboring colleges or universities. Rarely, indeed, has the university assumed any financial responsibility under the new arrangement beyond providing additional facilities for laboratory instruction, but the gain to medical education from the introduction of scientific methods in the early part of the curriculum has been, on the whole, very great.

Useful as has been the work of the proprietary schools, however, their day, in Professor Barker's judgment, is past. What is now demanded is medical training fully on a par, in its methods, aims, and conditions, with the best university work in other lines. The nearest approximation to what is required is found in the six or eight principal medical schools in the United States, to which Professor Barker gives the suggestive name of "semi-university" schools. In these schools the subjects of the first two years are taught under the best scientific conditions by instructors who do not engage in private practice, and whose only aim is to do the best possible scientific work and give the best possible scientific training. But this is as far as the reform has gone. The subjects of the last two years are taught by men in active practice, not always of broad training, and appointed primarily because of their success as practitioners. Further, few universities own or control hospitals, but must rely upon the charity institutions, the majority of which are still, as we all know, subject to political or personal influence.

The weakness of present-day instruction in medicine, in Professor Barker's opinion, is the preponderating combination of teaching and private practice in the personnel of our medical faculties. What he would have is a real university school of medicine, in which the same views of the professor's functions which obtain in other departments shall hold

also for the medical faculty. It is generally understood that the professor of mathematics, or chemistry, or political economy shall give his whole time to the business of instruction and research, and not half of it to the university and half to some commercial or manufacturing enterprise.

"Imagine," says Professor Barker, "the condition which would exist if the university said to its professor of economics, 'We shall be glad to have you as our professor of this subject provided you are willing to do the teaching we ask of you without direct remuneration. Your position in the university will make you so well and favorably known that you will be able to secure financial responsibilities in the city which will give you a far larger income than we could afford to pay you,' or, if the President and trustees made a proposition to the professor of chemistry that he be paid \$1,500 per year to take charge of the teaching and investigation in the chemical laboratories, it being pointed out to him that the prestige of a university professorship would enable him to secure lucrative positions as commercial chemist to four or five manufacturing concerns in the city in which he lives, or as analyst to baking-powder companies and manufacturers of pure-food preparations; some of the trustees taking the stand that the intimate contact thus gained with chemistry as practically applied in the business world is not only desirable for the professor, but absolutely essential in order that his influence upon his students may not be too academic. . . . What, think you, would be the rate of progress in original work in the sciences of political economy and chemistry in a university so constituted? And yet, there is not a medical faculty in a university anywhere in America where this plan is not followed, at least for some of the chairs."

Professor Barker writes throughout with perfect courtesy and with cordial recognition of the high aims and unselfishness which characterize teaching physicians as a class, but his paper is nevertheless a strong indictment of American medical education as a whole. Whether his contention is sound, or not, is a question which no layman is competent to decide. That the reform for which he contends will not be brought about without much discussion is self-evident, but if the course of scientific instruction in other departments is any criterion, he has pointed the way along which the medical education of the future will proceed. The enormous cost of a true university medical school, with its highly paid staff and series of observational hospitals, is not the least obstacle in the way. Most serious, however, will be the opposition of the medical profession to a surrender of the time-honored notion that the best preparation for teaching is a large private practice.

ÉMILE ZOLA.

A very bitter but a very sincere spirit has passed away. A great and indefatigable talent vanishes, leaving behind it the memory of a discredited theory of literature and the better remembrance of a battle for truth and justice conducted with that same impressive fanaticism which gave the world the sordid epic of the Rougon-Macquart family. It was characteristic that Zola's first book of

criticism should have been called 'My Hatreds' (*Mes Haines*); it was not without significance that he who later condemned his country for its cruelty to Alfred Dreyfus, should have been the ardent defender of that great but unappreciated genius, Édouard Manet. No one who has seen the man near at hand, has marked the abruptness of his movements and the settled gloom of his expression, has heard him speak tender words to a body of mourners—as we recall him at the burial of Alphonse Daudet—with the air of berating a hostile audience, could doubt that his heart was torn with the *sarra indignatio* of a Swift—could fail to perceive all the qualities and defects of a temperament essentially fanatical.

Zola's activity may fairly be divided into three periods: first, that of the human document, most signally represented by the Rougon-Macquart series of no less than twenty volumes, written from 1871 to 1893; second, that of growing idealism, exemplified in the three cities, 'Lourdes,' 'Rome,' 'Paris' (1894-1898), and culminating in the colossal idyll, 'Fécondité,' 1899; third, the great episode of 1898, the appeal to the conscience of France, and the agitation which resulted in the retrial of Alfred Dreyfus and the rout of the army cabal.

Zola's theory of the "experimental novel," as set forth in the book of that name and as illustrated by the greater part of his literary work, has had its day and passed into the limbo of suspended doctrines. Zola was never quite consistently faithful to his own theory of naturalism and the human document, and in his later years he repudiated it by his practice. He chose to speak of himself as a "naturalist" rather than a realist, because his plan was larger than that of reproducing with minute fidelity the details of life as observed. He desired rather to make his books "cross-sections of reality," in which the environment, heredity, individual prepossessions, personal, political, and industrial relations of a group, and the deeds which sprung from these causes, should all be contained. "I could wish to imbed all humanity in my page, all beings, all things—to create a work which should be one vast repository." Of the greatness of this enterprise there can be no doubt. Its accomplishment in the Rougon-Macquart series, however, hardly corresponds to the amplitude of the design. To study in a selected group the entire course of modern French society, to lay bare the symptoms of the fever that led from the installation of the Second Empire to Sedan—this was his plan in pursuing to the impurest depths the fortunes of the Rougons and Macquarts. But Émile Zola was no Balzac, to plan a *Comédie Humaine* of which the minutest part should be an unending source of intellectual enjoyment and

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK	423
EDITORIAL ARTICLES:	
The Decision, and After	426
Relations with Canada	426
The Tariff and the Trusts	427
The Hawaiian Unhappy Family	428
Art for the City	428
Presbyterian Creed Revision	429
SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:	
The Archivo General de Mexico	430
The Amherst Eclipse Expedition I.	431
NOTES	433
BOOK REVIEWS:	
Gardner's Commonwealth and Protectorate	436
Recent Fiction	437
A Sailor's Log	438
Cassius, Rhinocerosing	439
Five Years of my Life	440
Stories of the High Priests of Memphis	441
The Norwegian North Polar Expedition	441
Two Lectures Introductory to the Study of Poetry	441
A Study of Christian Missions	442
BOOKS OF THE WEEK	412

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK..... 41

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:

The Treasury Surplus	44
The Secretary of Commerce	44
Currency Reform in the Philippines.....	45
The Carnegie Institution	46
Popular Appreciation of Scientists.....	46

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:

American Historical Association	47
The Economic Association in Washington.....	48
A Glimpse of Cuba	50

CORRESPONDENCE:

Canada and Alaska	51
Stern's Influence in France.....	51

NOTES.....

51

BOOK REVIEWS:

Balfour; Stevenson; Henley	54
School and College Education	55
Some Recent Books on Linear Perspective	56
Present Irish Questions	57

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 58

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK.....	59
EDITORIAL ARTICLES:	
A Working Plan for the Philippines.....	62
For a Philippine Inquiry.....	62
Consolidating the Army Supply Departments.....	63
The Case of Mr. Schwab.....	64
SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:	
The Naples Tammany Overthrow.....	65
The Prosperity of British India.....	67
The Grande Mademoiselle.....	68
CORRESPONDENCE:	
What Has Tamed the Colleges.....	69
The Philippine Soldier's Return.....	69
President McKinley and the War with Spain.....	69
Facts About the Alaskan Boundary.....	69
NOTES.....	70
BOOK REVIEWS:	
Lanchini's Old Rome.....	73
Recent Poetry.....	74
Historic Towns of the Western States.....	76
Two Centuries of Christian Activity at Yaddo.....	77
The Life of Lord Russell of Killowen.....	77
The Roman Theocracy and the Republic.....	78
The True History of Captain John Smith.....	78
History of Intellectual Development on the Lines of Modern Evolution.....	78
The Meaning of the Good.....	79
BOOKS OF THE WEEK.....	79

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK.....	255
EDITORIAL ARTICLES:	
Coal Mining by Receipts.....	258
The Alaska Boundary.....	258
The New Medical Education.....	259
Emile Zola.....	260
SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:	
Pekin Two Years After the Siege.....	261
Finnish Painting: Primitive and Modern.....	262
CORRESPONDENCE:	
The Ethics of the Widowress.....	264
Ellsworth's Zouaves.....	264
Questioning Suspected Criminals.....	264
Paulsen's Misrepresentations of Kant.....	264
Handel's Soliloquy.....	265
NOTES.....	265
BOOK REVIEWS:	
Three "Baconian" Books.....	268
Recent English Anthologies.....	270
The Jewish Encyclopedia.....	272
Supplement to Burnett's History of My Own Time.....	272
Thoughts from the Letters of Petrarch.....	272
The Theory of Optics.....	273
As Seen from the Banks.....	273
BOOKS OF THE WEEK.....	274

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